

DE CARMINE DEI DEORUM

OR

ON THE SONG OF THE GOD OF GODS

Being a Commentary in English on the Bhagavad-Gîtâ
(Complete in Three Parts)

P A R T II

COSMOLOGY OR THE SCIENCE OF THE WORLD OR UNIVERSE

BY

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PRONUNCIATION

The pronunciation of titles is indicated by accenting the word or by respelling it phonetically in italics. In the phonetic spelling, letters are used to indicate the sounds which they most commonly represent.

A vowel is *short* when followed by a consonant in the same syllable, unless the syllable ends in silent *s*.

A vowel is *long* when standing alone or in a syllable which ends in silent *s* or when ending an accented syllable.

S is always soft, and never has the sound of *z*.

The foreign sounds which have no equivalent in the English language are represented as follows:

K for the German *ch*, as in Bach: (*Bach, baK'*)

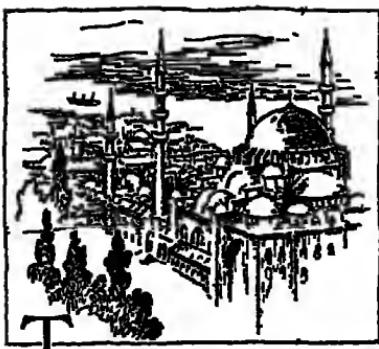
N for the French *é*, as in Breton: (*Breton, bretōN'*).

o for the German *o*, as in Goettingen: (*Goettingen, go'ting en*).

u for the German *ü*, as in Blucher: (*Blucher, bluK'ur*).

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TURKEY, the name that for centuries was borne by one of the world's mightiest empires, when it beset three continents and from its throne of beauty at Constantinople swayed the destinies not only of millions of Turks but of many subject peoples held to an unwilling allegiance by the power of the sword. Under the white heat of religious zeal and fanaticism which taught that to kill an infidel or to die in a "holy" war was rewarded gloriously in the hereafter, the empire expanded until North Africa, Southwest Asia, and much of Southern Europe lay at the feet of the Mohammedan power.

It could not govern well. It despised the infidel—anyone not a follower of Mahomet. Tyranny, despotism, repression, and bloodshed in the course of time wrought its doom. As its alien peoples desperately began to free themselves from this overlordship, the empire started to shrink. How it lost its African domain in Egypt and Tripoli, the manner in which it was forced step by step out of Europe until only a tenuous foothold was retained along the Dardanelles and the Sea of Marmara, and its Asiatic realm was reduced until there remained only its old fertile stronghold on the Anatolian plateau (old Asia Minor)—these moving facts this article records, and more. The empire itself has disappeared, and on its ruins was erected a modern government, republican in form, liberal in outlook, known as the National State of Turkey. Population, 1927, 13,648,720.

A Look Backward While the generation now coming to knowledge of world affairs sees a new Turkey trying to get in step with Western ideals and modern standards—and succeeding very well—the Turkey with which the passing generation is familiar was popularly known as the Ottoman Empire, so called

from Othman, or Osman, its founder. About the year 1300, by martial ability and valor, to which he added deceitful wiles, he reared an independent kingdom on the ruins of the Seljuk Turks, whom Christian Europe had come to know as its foe during the Crusades. Othman's followers were a tribe that had swarmed out of the unknown in Central Asia about fifty years before.

The spirit of conquest was strong in these early Ottoman Turks, and gradually they subjugated the Armenian peoples, absorbed the dependences of the Eastern Roman, or Byzantine Empire, and fought their way into South Central Europe, and Africa. In the sixteenth century, when the power of the Ottoman Turk was at its height, the empire included Arabia, and the Asiatic possessions of the fallen Byzantine Empire, including Constantinople, Macedonia, Greece, Albania, Serbia, the provinces that became modern Rumania, Bulgaria, the Greek Mediterranean islands, Syria, Tripoli and Egypt. The Ottomans even gained a foothold in Hungary and in Italy, but after 1683 they were gradually pushed out of Europe. One by one the European provinces of Turkey gained their independence. In 1912 Italy by a successful war wrested Tripoli from Turkey, and at the close of the Balkan Wars, in 1913, the empire was shorn of all its European holdings except Constantinople, Adrianople, a small section adjoining these cities and a few islands in the Mediterranean.

Then came the World War. The interests of Germany and Turkey were closely related. The former had projected the Berlin to Baghdad Railway, and a part of it had been constructed through Turkish territory. Turkey reasoned with considerable assurance that the Germanic powers would win the war, and at its close, with Turkish participation on the side of the Central Powers, its world position would be greatly strengthened. It could be of material assistance to Germany, for even with the losses it had recently suffered, the empire covered more than 780,000 square miles, exclusive of Egypt, where it still exercised nominal authority. Hostilities were begun by Turkish bombardment of Odessa, and Russia declared war on Turkey, followed in the succeeding months by declarations by France and Italy, by a final declaration Turkey placed Rumania among its enemies. Between Great Britain and Turkey no declarations were made.

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Changes During the World War Early in the World War the British annexed the island of Cyprus, and in 1915 declared Egypt a British protectorate. In 1918 the people of Hedjaz, a narrow strip of territory in Arabia, bordering on the Red Sea, revolted and set up an independent kingdom, thus state has an area of 95,500 square miles and a population of 300,000. In 1917 Palestine was captured by the British, and by the end of the war all of Syria was under allied control. Mesopotamia fell into British hands in 1917, and when Turkey surrendered in

France and Great Britain with mandates to govern and prepare them for statehood Turkey and its People. The dominion which follows is restricted to the genuinely Turkish portion of the old empire, namely, Anatolia, or Asia Minor (For descriptive matter on the various parts of the former domain, see ARMENIA, ARABIA, PALESTINE, SYRIA, MESOPOTAMIA, EGYPT, etc.) Anatolia is derived from Greek words meaning "Asia", a word chosen with reference to the elevated surface, and is the modern name for Asia Minor. The country includes the



The area with boundary heavily shaded marks the limits of the present National State of Turkey. All that part of Asia west of Persia and south of the Soviet Transcaucasia was a part of the Turkish Empire until after the World War

the fall of 1918 practically Constantinople only was left to the Turk in Europe. Turkey Dismembered. The part of the old empire that was predominantly Turkish was Anatolia, or Asia Minor. Thus the Allies determined should constitute the new Turkey, with the addition of the area surrounding Constantinople, on the European mainland, and a few small adjacent islands in the Aegean Sea. All other possessions were swept away, Palestine, Syria, and Mesopotamia (now Iraq) were given hope of eventual independence, but placed temporarily under

peninsula bounded by the Armenian highlands on the east, Syria and the Mediterranean on the south, the Aegean Sea on the west, and the Black Sea and Sea of Marmora on the north. In the interior the land is a series of plateaus, having an average elevation of 8,000 feet. Near the Mediterranean seacoast these uplands suddenly sink to the narrow belt of level land called the Levant. The plateaus are nearly bare of trees and are interspersed with salt plains, marshes and salty lakes. The land is bare, best adapted for grazing. Under irriga-

tion, however, the soil is productive. The strips of seacoast on the west, north and south are fertile and bear a luxuriant vegetation, including such fruits as prunes, olives and figs. Farming is practiced in the interior with considerable toil, and grains, cotton and tobacco are raised. Silk culture also receives attention.

The plateau is bordered on the north by a series of parallel mountains which run the whole length of the Black Sea. The greatest elevation, in the extreme east, is 12,000 feet. On the south is the Taurus range, following the Mediterranean coast, and having many peaks over 10,000 feet in height. These mountains are rich in minerals, but the mines have as yet been little developed. The mineral deposits of Anatolia include coal, lead, manganese, iron, gold, salt and petroleum, and they offer a promising field for capitalists when normal conditions return.

In Anatolia, as in other parts of the old Turkish domain, industry has long been in a backward state. The rural population which lives chiefly by farming and sheep raising, has suffered from misgovernment, lack of transportation facilities, ignorance and extortion of tax officials. Manufacturing in the modern sense is almost unknown, but Turkish artisans show great skill in producing copper and brass utensils, and, especially, hand-woven rugs. Cloth, olive oil and soap are made in limited quantities.

The Turkish peasants are naturally patient, hospitable and kind-hearted, it is the unscrupulous deeds of the ruling classes that have given rise to the feeling in Western nations expressed in the term, the "Unspeckable Turk." The Turkish people are all Mohammedans in religion, and are devoted followers of the Prophet. They are found in all parts of the old empire, both in Europe and Asia, but are nowhere numerically dominant except in Asia Minor. In the cities Greeks, Jews and Armenians are important in commercial life, but Turks have political control. Nomadic Turkomans, who are racially akin to the Turks, are found in the rural districts in large numbers. The chief cities include Smyrna, Scutari, Brusse, Adana, Trebizond and Adalia.

History of the Empire. The Ottoman Turks came originally from the region of the Altai Mountains, in central Asia, and in the sixth century A.D. they pushed onward to the west, in connection with other Turkish

tribes. Early in the eighth century they came in contact with the Saracens, from whom they took their religion, and of whom they were at first the slaves and mercenaries. In the thirteenth century they appeared as allies of the Seljuk Turks against the Mongols, and for their aid they received a grant of lands in Asia Minor. Othman or Osman, the son of their leader, Ertogrol, became the most powerful emir of Western Asia, and after the death of the Seljuk sultan of Icimum in the year 1300, he proclaimed himself sultan. Thus was founded, upon the ruins of the Saracen, Seljuk and Mongol power, the Empire of the Osman, or Ottoman Turks, in Asia. After Osman, the courage, policy and enterprise of eight great princes, whom the dignity of caliph placed in possession of the standard of the prophet, and who were animated by religious fanaticism and a passion for military glory, raised the Empire to the rank of the first military power, in both Europe and Asia (1300-1566).

Period of Expansion. The first of these princes was Orkhan, son of Osman. He subdued all Asia Minor to the Hellespont and was the first to organize the Turkish power. Orkhan's son, Soliman, first invaded Europe in 1355. In 1361 Orkhan's second son and successor, Amurath I, took Adrianople, which became the seat of the empire in Europe, and he later conquered Macedonia, Albania and Serbia and defeated a great Slav confederation, under the Bosnian king Stephen, at Kosovo. Bajazet (ruler from 1389 to 1402) invaded Thessaly and advanced toward Constantinople. In 1396 he defeated the Western Christians under Sigismund, king of Hungary, at Nicopolis, in Bulgaria; but at Angora, in 1402, he was himself conquered and taken prisoner by Timur, who divided the provinces between the sons of Bajazet. Finally, in 1418, the fourth son of Bajazet, Mohammed I, seated himself upon the throne of Osman. Mohammed was succeeded by his son, Amurath II (1421-1451), who defeated Ladislas, king of Hungary and Poland, at Varna in 1444. Mohammed II, the son of Amurath, completed the work of conquest (1451-1481). He attacked Constantinople, which was taken on May 29, 1453, and the Byzantine Empire came to an end. After that time Constantinople was the seat of the Sublime Porte, or Turkish government. Mohammed added Serbia, Bosnia, Albania

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and Greece to the Ottoman Empire, and threatened Italy, which was freed from danger by his death. His grandson, Selim I (Sultan from 1512 to 1520), conquered Egypt and Syria. Under Solyman II (1520-1566), the Ottoman Empire reached the highest pitch of power and splendor, but after his time, the race of Osman degenerated, and the power of the Porte declined.

Period of Decline. During the latter part of the sixteenth century and most of the seventeenth century, the chief wars which Turkey waged were with Venice and with Austria. The Battle of Lepanto in 1571, in which the Ottoman fleet was overtaken by the combined fleets of Venice and Spain, was the first great Ottoman reverse at sea, and which Montezemolo defeated the Vizier Kimprik. In 1603 Vienna was besieged by the Turks, but it was relieved by John Sobieski, and in 1607 the Turks were defeated at Zenta, and in Austria under Prince Eugene. Two years after this defeat, the Peace of Karlowitz was signed, by which Turkey agreed to renounce its claims upon Transylvania and a large part of Hungary, to give up the Ukraine to Poland and to leave Azov to the Russians. Eugene's subsequent victories at Peterwardein and Belgrade obliged the Porte, by the Treaty of Passarowitz, in 1718, to give up Belgrade, with a part of Serbia and Wallachia, but the Turks, on the other hand, took the Morea from Venice, and by the Treaty of Belgrade, in 1739, they regained Belgrade, Serbia and Little Wallachia, while for a time they also regained Azov.

Russia, which had been making steady advances under Peter the Great and subsequently, now became the great opponent of Turkey. In the middle of the eighteenth century, the Ottoman Empire still embraced a large part of southern Russia. The victories of the Russians in the war between 1736 and 1744 determined the political supremacy of Russia, and compelled Turkey to yield all sovereignty over the Crimea to Russia, and to Russia the country between the Bug and the Dniester and to open its seas to the Russian merchant ships. By the Peace of Jassy, 1762, which closed the war of 1737-1761, Russia retained Tauride and the country between the Bug and the Dniester and gained some concessions in the Caucasus.

In the long series of wars which followed the French Revolution, the Ottoman Empire was first opposed to France, in consequence of Bonaparte's campaign in Egypt, and later to Russia, which demanded a more distinct recognition of its protectorate over the Christians. By the Peace of Bucharest in 1812, Turkey ceded to Russia the country between the Danube and the Pruth. Further disputes ended in the Porte making additional concessions, which tended toward loosening the connection of Serbia, Moldavia and Wallachia with Turkey. In 1821 the war of Greek independence broke out. In 1826 the massacre of the Janizaries took place at Constantinople, after a revolt. In 1828 the Russians crossed the Balkans and took Adrianople, the war being terminated by the Peace of Adrianople in 1829. In 1831 Mehmet Ali, nominally pasha of Egypt, but real ruler both of Egypt and Syria, invaded Constantinople, but the Russians, who had been called on for aid by the sultan, forced the invaders to desist. In 1839 Mehmet Ali again rose against his sovereign, but through the active intervention of Austria, Great Britain and Russia, he was compelled to evacuate Syria, though he was recognized as hereditary viceroy of Egypt.

The next important event in the history of the Ottoman Empire was the Crimean War. In 1875 the people of Herzegovina, unable to endure longer the misgovernment of the Turks, broke into rebellion. A year later the Serbians and Montenegrins likewise took up the arms, and though the former were unsuccessful and obliged to abandon the war, the Montenegrins still held out. Meantime, the great powers of Europe were pressing reforms on Turkey, and at the end of 1876 a conference met at Constantinople, with the view of making a fresh settlement of the relations between Turkey and the Christian provinces. All the recommendations of the conference met at Constantinople, with the exception of those made at the conference of the provinces, were, however, rejected by Turkey; and in April following, Russia, which had been coming more and more prominently forward as the champion of the oppressed provinces and had for months been massing troops on both the Asiatic and the European frontier of Turkey, issued a warlike manifesto and commenced hostile operations in both parts of the Turkish Empire. The final settlement of this war was effected by the Treaty of Berlin.



Above
Angora



Pacific & Atlantic

THE OLD AND THE NEW IN TURKEY

Above A picturesque street scene in the ancient city of Angora, the capital of modern Turkey

Below Old and new costumes of Turkish women, the two at the right in modern costumes without veils, permitted under the present régime



THE MOSQUE OF ST SOPHIA, NOW MOSQUE MEHIMEDIE,
ISTANBUL, TURKEY

It stands today as the most famous example of Byzantine architecture. Built for a Christian Church by the Roman Emperor Justinian the Great, it was completed in 538. The dome is the most impressive feature of the structure. It is 100 feet high and 107 feet in diameter, and is supported on four arches, each having a span of about 100 feet.

The interior is finished with marble and beautiful mosaic.

The main events in the history of the Ottoman Empire from the Treaty of Berlin to the year 1890 were the treaty with Greece, executed under pressure of the great powers in 1881, by which Turkey ceded to Greece almost the whole of Thessaly and a strip of Epirus, the occupation of Egypt by Great Britain in 1882, and the revolution at Philippopolis in 1885, when the government of Eastern Rumelia was overthrown, and the union of that province with Bulgaria was proclaimed. In July, 1894, Constantinople was visited by a series of earthquakes, which lasted eight days, two or more occurring each day. Great damage was done to the city and surrounding country, and hundreds of people were killed.

For a number of decades the Turkish government had frequent revolts to deal with the massacres occasioned by these uprisings aroused the sympathy of America and Europe, but the European powers would not interfere because it was believed that such interference might cause a general upheaval in Europe. In July, 1908, the Young Turks succeeded in a revolution which compelled the sultan to grant a constitution. The first Parliament under this constitution met in 1909. In April the troops in Constantinople revolted against the Young Turks, but troops from the country near by rushed to the capital, and gained control of the city. Abdul Hamid was compelled to abdicate, and his younger brother, Mohammed Reşad Efendi, ascended the throne with the title of Mejid, or Mohammed V. In 1912 Turkey lost Tripoli to Italy, resulting from a war of aggression on the part of the latter. Hardly had peace been arranged between Italy and Turkey, when the war against Turkey was declared by the allied Balkan states. After several months of warfare the European powers interfered to end the struggle, and on May 30, 1913, Turkey accepted the terms of the Treaty of London. In October, 1914, Turkish warships bombarded the Russian port of Odessa, probably as the result of an agreement with Germany. This act, after reparation was refused, was accepted by Russia and its allies as a cause for war.

The World War and Its Effects (See WORLD WAR, for military operations) Turkey's mistreatment of the Armenians, nearly two million of whom were massacred or deported (see ARMENIA, for report of American Relief Committee), was a blot on

Turkey's record, and abhorrent to all nations. In October, 1918, Turkey surrendered to the Allies, and the Ottoman Empire came to an end. Mohammed V died late in 1918, and was succeeded by his son, Mohammed VI, who remained in Constantinople, which came under control of the Allies, while the Great National Assembly (convened in April, 1920) sitting at Angora exercised the functions of a parliament, as well as of supreme executive authority, in the *de facto* government set up by Mustapha Kemal Pasha. Until the fall of 1922, this government controlled all of Asia Minor not in foreign occupation. In the fall of 1922, the Turkish army under Kemal Pasha defeated the Greeks and captured Smyrna, recovering this section of Asia Minor which had been awarded to Greece. Kemal Pasha followed up this victory by demanding and receiving Constantinople and Adrianople, but the powers decreed that the straits should be internationalized. However, in 1936 the Dardanelles was again fortified by Turkey.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

	CITIES
Adrianople	Constantinople
Angora (Ankara)	Smyrna
<i>MILITARY</i>	
Abd-ul-Hamid	Gallipoli
Balance of Power	Kemal Pasha,
Balkan Wars	Mustapha
Berlin Congress of	Mohammed V
Bozporus	Russia
Romanian Empire	Russia-Turkish War
Crimian War	Seljuk
Dardanelles	World War

TURKEY, a large game bird of the pheasant family, native to North America. There are only two species; one is found in Yucatan and Central America, and the other is the common wild turkey of Mexico and the United States. The wild turkey is a tall, handsome bird, the full-grown male weighing from ten to twenty-five pounds. The brilliant plumage has copper, bronze and green reflections. The head and neck are bare of feathers. The male, which is larger than the female, has a tuft of bristly feathers hanging from its breast. These birds feed on insects, seeds, berries and other small fruits. The nests are placed on the ground, and the eggs, twice the size of a hen's egg, are creamy white. One brood, usually consisting of about twelve, is reared a season. A second brood is raised only in case the first comes to grief. The birds are becoming rapidly exterminated. The domestic

turkey, which is derived from the Mexican wild turkey, is less brilliantly colored. Turkeys require about the same care as chickens. See GAME, color plate.

TURKEY BUZZARD, or **TURKEY VULTURE**, the commonest of American vultures, so named because at a distance it resembles a turkey in appearance. The turkey buzzard is about two and a half feet long, and its wings extend to about six feet in breadth. It lives in most of the warmer regions of the United States and extends its habitat through Mexico and South America.

TURKMENISTAN See TURKESTAN.

TURKS, a race of Mongolo-Tatar origin, widely disseminated throughout Western and Northwestern Asia and Southeastern Europe. They are divided into the Ottoman Turks, Turkomans, Kirghizes, Usbecks, Yaksuts and other tribes. The Ottoman Turks developed in the Middle Ages to commanding military and political power, but have since greatly declined.

TUMERIC, an aromatic plant, native to Southern Asia, also a yellow dye prepared from its roots. Turmeric is used as a condiment in the Orient, being an important ingredient in curry powder. It is also useful in chemistry, in making test papers.

TURNER, JOSIAH MALLARD WILLIAM (1775-1851), an English landscape painter, member of the Royal Academy, first celebrated as a landscape painter in water colors and later in oils. In the first half of the nineteenth century he exhibited at the Academy more than two hundred pictures, easily becoming the most popular landscape painter of the English school. His works claim special merit because of their fine coloring effects. Details are often wanting, and drawing is imperfect, but the idealistic effect is unsurpassed. During the latter period of his work, however, he fell into a vague trifling with effects of light and shade and color, which somewhat lessened his great reputation. He bequeathed most of his pictures and sketches to the nation, on condition that a suitable building be erected for their reception. They have been placed in the Turner Gallery, occupying two rooms in the National Gallery in London. Some of his most noted paintings are *Slave Ship*; *The Fighting Temeraire*; *Ram, Steam and Speed on the Great Western Railway*; *Hannibal and His Army Crossing the Alps*, and *The Garden of the Hesperides*.

TURNER, NAT (about 1800-1831), an American negro slave, born in Southampton County, Va., who from earliest childhood claimed to be chosen and inspired for the accomplishment of a great purpose. In 1828, he declared that at a certain sign he would lead an insurrection against his enemies. In 1831, at an eclipse of the sun, he began carrying out this plan by killing five members of his master's family. Joined by other slave recruits, he continued the massacre until every person in the neighborhood had been murdered. On the following day the insurrection was broken up by a band of white men and by the arrival of Federal troops. Turner was captured October 30 and executed within a few days. The insurrection, known as the Nat Turner Insurrection, resulted in the passage of stringent laws for the management and punishment of slaves in most of the Southern states.

TURNIP, a biennial plant of the mustard family, much cultivated on account of its fleshy root. It was well known to the Greeks and Romans, and has been used as a vegetable in all temperate climates, being cultivated on a large scale in some countries as food for stock. Turnips may be planted succeeding the harvest of a crop of wheat or oats.

TURNSTONE, a shore bird of the plover family, with pied black and white plumage,



TURNSTONE

varied with rufous and ash, taking its name from its habit of turning up small stones in search for marine worms, minute crustaceans, etc., for food. It is found in almost every part of the globe during migrations, and breeds on rocky coasts in the Arctic regions, commonly concealing its eggs, four in number, among the sparse Arctic vegetation.

TURNVERHIN, *toorn'ferne*, German athletic organizations first established by Friedrich Ludwig Jahn about the beginning of the nineteenth century, and exerting an

enormous influence in building up a vigorous and hardy German population after the Napoleonic wars. In America turnvereins were first organized by German refugees in Philadelphia and Cincinnati, in 1848. They were subsequently extended to other cities with large German populations, the total membership attaining to about 40,000.

TURPENTINE, the distilled gum of the pine tree. Turpentine is manufactured by collecting the gum, or crude turpentine, from the trees and distilling it in copper vessels. The season begins when the first spring sap rises, and it ends when winter checks the flow of the sap. In January or February the trees are hacked. The hacks are about six inches deep, they are cut near the roots of the tree, and as close together, to the height of a man's head, as can be done without killing the pine. The hacker leaves a width of bark between each cut, so as to preserve the vitality of the tree. The sap or gum, fills the cuts with a clear, sticky, thick fluid, and this is removed with a draper. The sap is deposited in barrels, which are scattered through the woods. The first sap which flows in the spring makes the best resin, and the poorest is the product of the hardened gum which is left on the sides of the cuts. This is removed by the scraper, who moves through the woods gathering the leavings.

The still is a copper vat, hooded, with a close-fitting, air-tight cover, in which is a funnel, which, in turn, is connected with the worm of the still (see DISTILLATION). This worm runs down into another vat, near at hand, and in this vat the fumes, or vapor, of the heated gum are distilled into turpentine. Fire under the copper vat heats the gum, and the volatile parts rise to the funnel, pass into the still and are condensed by the water in the second vat into spirits of turpentine. The residuum left in the vat is the rosin of commerce, which is passed through a series of strainers and sieves to the barrels, which are made on the spot. The turpentines cannot be barrelled so easily, for it will work through an ordinary barrel. It is placed in white pine barrels, which have been coated inside with several coats of strong, hot glue, which keeps the turpentine from soaking into the wood. The trees are worked for five or six seasons. All the turpentines dissolve in pure alcohol, and by distillation they yield oils, which are termed spirits of turpentine. Oil, or spirits, of turpentine is used to a

limited extent in medicine. It is also much used in the arts, for dissolving resins and oils in making varnishes. See RESINS, ROSIN.

TURQUOISE, *tur'kōz*, a precious stone, of beautiful blue or green color due to the presence of copper. It is capable of taking a high polish, and has long been a favorite gem in the East, especially in Persia, where the finest specimens are found. When exposed to fatty acids, the turquoise loses its color and turns greenish, thus leading to the Oriental superstition that its dullness foretells misfortune. Bone turquoise is an imitation turquoise, composed of fossil bone.

TURTLE, a name given to reptiles that differ but little from tortoise, in fact, turtle is the name commonly given to both forms. The shell which encloses the body of the turtle is in two parts, the upper portion called the carapace, the lower, the plastron. Turtles have no teeth, but the jaws have a tough, horny skin. The food of some turtles is marine plants, others feed on insect larvae, fish and mollusks. They deposit their eggs usually in holes in sandy places, cover them with sand, and leave them to be hatched by the warmth of the sun. The young begin to crawl on leaving the egg, and soon find water. Turtles are found in the seas of warm climates, and in many inland lakes and rivers. The most important species is the green turtle, which is from six to seven feet long and weighs from 700 to 800 pounds. It is found in the West Indies, and is brought to the United States for its food value. See GALAPAGOS, for reference to turtles.

Mud Turtle, the name commonly applied to small turtles of aquatic habits which prowl about the muddy bottoms of rivers and ponds in search of food. The common mud turtle is about four inches long, dull olive or brown above and yellow or pale brown below. Other species include the Louisiana, the yellow-necked and the Mexican.

Related Articles Consult the following titles for additional information:
Leatherback Terrapin Tortoise
Snapping Turtle

TURTLE DOVE, dove, a small European pigeon, pale grayish-brown in color, marked with a darker hue above and with a purple tinge on the feathers of its breast. Its cooing note is plaintive and tender. Its nest is loosely built in the crotch of a low tree or bush. The eggs are creamy-white, and are two in number. The similar North American species is known as the *mourning dove*.

TUSCALOOSA, *tus'ka lo'sa*, ALA., the county seat of Tuscaloosa County, fifty-six miles southwest of Birmingham, is in a rich cotton-growing and coal-mining region. The chief industrial establishments are cotton gins and compresses, iron works, lumber and flour mills, machine shops and creameries. The University of Alabama is a mile north of the city. Airports are maintained by the city and by the Federal government. The city was the capital of the state from 1820 to 1846 and the old capitol building is still a feature of interest. The place was settled in 1812 and incorporated in 1816. The commission form of government was adopted in 1912. Population, 1930, 20,639.

TUSCANY, *tus'ka nē*, a small department or province of Northern Italy. It comprised ancient Etruria, and the Etruscans (Etruscans) were the earliest known inhabitants of the peninsula. They became subject to Rome in the fourth century B.C. During the period of barbarian invasions they were overcome in turn by the Ostrogoths, the emperors of Constantinople and the Lombards. In the Middle Ages several of the states of Etruria, notably Florence, Pisa and Genoa, became independent and prosperous, and in the latter half of the sixteenth century the Florentine possessions were formed into the Grand Duchy of Tuscany. From 1743 to 1859 Tuscany was under the rule of Germany; in 1861 it became by vote of its population a part of the kingdom of Italy.

Among the noted names of natives of Tuscany are the Medici, Giotto, Boccaccio, Dante and Petrarch. The dialect of Tuscany became the classical language of Italy.

TUSCARORA, *tus'ka ro'rah*, a migrating Iroquoian tribe, which finally settled in New York and was received as a sixth member in the confederacy. See FIVE NATIONS, THE.

TUSKEGEE, *tus'kejē*, NORMAL AND INDUSTRIAL INSTITUTE, an industrial school for negroes, established in 1881 by the state legislature at Tuskegee, Ala. It began its sessions in a small church, and the thirty pupils were all taught by Booker T. Washington. The institution has enjoyed wonderful prosperity, and now owns 2,800 acres of land, scores of buildings and much valuable equipment. The endowment has been built up from \$2,000,000 to more than \$10,000,000, in 1936. There are about 1,600 students and a faculty numbering about 180. Until his death in 1915, Booker T. Washington continued as

head of the school, and to him is due much of the credit for its marvelous growth.

The object of the institute is to furnish its students with an education fitting them to become proper leaders of the people of their own race, and thus to bring about better moral and material conditions. The studies of the academic department are closely associated with the practical work in the shops and fields. See WASHINGTON, Booker T.

TUSsock MOTH, a family of moths named from the tufts of hairs, often bright-colored, appearing in the caterpillars. The moths are dull-colored, and the females of some species are wingless. Several varieties of this moth are very destructive to fruit, and shade trees, and forest trees, notable among these being the *gypsy* moth, the *brown-tail* moth and the *white-marked tussock* moth. Of the latter there are two or three generations each summer, and the young caterpillars are extremely voracious. Trees are protected against these moths by winter pruning and burning of the cocoons, and by summer spraying and banding of trees. See GYPSY MOTH.

TUT-ANKH-AMEN, a pharaoh (or king) of ancient Egypt, who reigned about 1,490 B.C. The finding of his tomb in the Valley of Kings, near Thebes, is called the greatest archeological exploit of modern times. The expedition which discovered and opened this tomb was led by Lord Carnarvon of England, and Howard Carter, an American archeologist. The tomb and contents were opened and revealed to the world in 1923. Rare and priceless relics were disclosed.

TWAIN, MARK See CLEMENS, SAMUEL LANGHORNE

TWEED, a twilled wool or wool-and-cotton fabric for men's wear, with an unfinished surface and of two colors, usually combined in the yarn. It is largely manufactured in Southern Scotland and takes its name from the Tweed River, along which it was first made.

TWEED, a river of Great Britain, ninety-five miles in length, rising in the southeastern part of Scotland and flowing easterly and northeasterly into the North Sea. The lower part of its course forms a part of the boundary between Scotland and England.

TWEED, WILLIAM MARCY (1823-1878), an American politician, notorious as the leader of the famous "Tweed Ring" in New York City. As a member of the famous

Tammany Hall, he gained immense influence and with the help of several unscrupulous supporters formed a combination for the political control of New York City. By the bribery of legislators and judges, bills were passed and decisions rendered which allowed the ring to carry out vast schemes of improvement, through which, by the padding of pay rolls and the auditing of fraudulent bills, they gained immense wealth. The régime lasted for more than six years, during which time the debt of the city was increased from \$20,000,000 to \$101,000,000. Finally, in 1871, through an exposure by the New York Times and a vigorous prosecution under a committee led by Samuel J. Tilden, the ring was broken up. Tweed was twice tried, finally convicted and sentenced to twelve years' confinement in the penitentiary and a fine of more than \$12,000. He was released two years later on a legal technicality, but was immediately rearrested on a suit for damages to the amount of more than \$6,000,000. While confined in jail awaiting trial, he escaped and fled to Spain. Finally, being captured, he died in jail.

TWEEDSMUIR See BOUCHAN, JOHN

TWELVE TABLES, LAW OF, the earliest written code of law among the Romans. According to tradition it was drawn up to appease the plebeians, who had complained that they were not getting justice from the patrician judges. In 451 B.C., ten magistrates, called *decemviri*, were elected to draft the laws, and the following year they submitted these to the people. The laws were afterwards written on brass tablets and placed in the Forum, over the orator's platform, where everyone might read them. These laws formed the basis of Roman legislation for centuries.

TWILIGHT, *twīlīt*, the glow in the sky before sunrise and after sunset. Twilight is caused by the refraction of the sun's rays as they pass through the atmosphere. The evening twilight is brightest immediately after sunset and continues to fade until the sun reaches 18° below the horizon, when twilight ceases. The time required for the sun to reach this point varies in different latitudes. In the torrid zone, where the sun's path throughout the year takes nearly the same direction as the parallels, twilight is of short duration, but in summer its duration increases toward the Poles, and near the Arctic Circle it lasts all night.

TWILIGHT SLEEP, the name commonly applied to a method of applying anesthetics during childbirth. It originated at the hospital at Freiburg, Germany, and has been attempted, with varying success, in other countries. The Freiburg method consists in the administration of measured doses of morphine and scopolamine, these being given at specified intervals. Under ideal conditions, and when the method operates successfully, the patient comes out of the ordeal with no recollection of pain. Undoubtedly in successful cases the mother is greatly benefited by the method, as the elements of shock and exhaustion are reduced to a minimum. Twilight sleep has been tried in the best hospitals in America, but the results have not always been satisfactory, though it is practicable in certain selected cases. Few physicians recommend methods of delivery which preclude all possible assistance from the mother. Promiscuous adoption of twilight sleep might result in great harm.

TYCHO BRAHE, *tīkō brāhē*, or *brāh*. See BRAHE, TYCHO



Grave, Richmond, Virginia

TYLER, J. H. N., (1790-1862), the tenth President of the United States, and the first "accidental" President, so-called because as Vice-President he succeeded automatically to the higher office through the death of the duly-elected executive.

Early Career. Tyler was a Virginian, born at Greenway, March 20, 1790, the son of John Tyler, Sr., who was at various times judge of state and Federal courts, speaker of the Virginia house of delegates and governor of the state. The future President was fortunate in his ancestry. By the time young Tyler was nineteen years of age he was a practicing attorney, and when twenty-one was a member of the state legislature, where he served for five consecutive terms, leaving that post only to go to Congress, to which he was elected in 1816, as a Democrat.

After two terms in Congress, he was returned to the state legislature in 1822, and two years later became governor of Virginia, the state promoting the son to the post with which it had once honored his father. After

two terms as governor, Tyler was elected to the United States Senate, in which body he took his seat in 1823.

Independence had been his chief characteristic in political life, though he was a Democrat, not always did he support the Democratic program. In the Senate the nation found him to be a stubborn man, who could not be moved from a position once deliberately taken. He came prominently into notice by opposing the tariff measures of 1832 and 1833, and was the only Senator to oppose the Force Bill of 1832. He had supported Jackson for the Presidency, but in 1834 made a report censuring the President for removing deposits from United States banks. The Virginia legislature ordered him to vote to expunge the vote of censure, but this Tyler refused to do, and soon he resigned from the Senate and retired to private life.

He became a leading member of the new Whig party, and sought to have the party name him for the Vice-Presidency in 1836. This effort failed, but in 1840 a chain of circumstances gave this former Democrat the coveted office. He was nominated on the Whig ticket with William Henry Harrison, the choice of Tyler being largely attributed to the Whig desire to secure the votes of Democrats who were dissatisfied with the two preceding administrations, which had brought upon the country the panic of 1837. Harrison and Tyler received 234 electoral votes; the opposition, 60. On March 4, 1841, the new administration assumed control of the government, and on April 4 President Harrison died.

Tyler as President. There was a stronger man than Tyler in official Washington, this was Henry Clay, the acknowledged leader of the Whigs. Clay looked upon the Presidential election as a vindication of his course in politics, Tyler considered the result to be merely a rebuke of the preceding administration. There was soon a clash of factions, and Tyler, the President and nominal leader, broke with the party.

The incident which caused the breach was legislation respecting a second United States Bank. Tyler approved the abolition of the sub-treasury system, but would not consent to another United States bank, which Congress favored. Twice he vetoed a bank bill, after this second refusal to carry out the wishes of the party all the Cabinet resigned, with the exception of Daniel Webster, who

Administration of John Tyler, 1841-1845.

I JOHN TYLER

- (1) Birth
- (2) Parentage
- (3) Education
- (4) Early career
- (5) Public life after break with Jackson
- (6) Career after end of his term
- (7) Character
- (8) Death

II GOVERNMENTAL AFFAIRS

- (1) Domestic
 - (a) President's quarrel with Whigs
- (2) Foreign
 - (a) Resignation of Cabinet
 - (b) Tyler read out of his party
- (3) Foreign
 - (a) Webster - Ashburton Treaty
 - (1) Negotiators
 - (2) Settled Maine boundary dispute
 - (3) Other settlements

III INTERNAL AFFAIRS

- (1) Dorr's Rebellion
 - (2) Patroon War
 - (3) The Mormons
 - (a) At Nauvoo
 - (b) In Utah
 - (4) Dedication of Bunker Hill Monument
 - (5) Construction of first telegraph line
 - (6) Discovery of copper
- Questions on Tyler

When and where was John Tyler born?

What public offices did he hold before his inauguration as President?

What were Tyler's views on internal improvements?

Why did the Whigs resign from the Cabinet?

Why was the South anxious to annex Texas?

Who was Lord Ashburton?

What disputes did the Webster-Ashburton Treaty settle?

Explain Dorr's Rebellion

ADMINISTRATIONS of **HARRISON** AND **TYLER** 1841

LOG CABIN
DEMOCRATIC

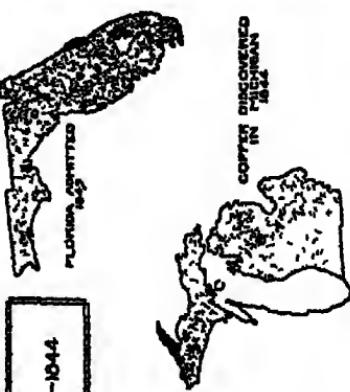


DEDICATION
OF
BUNKER HILL
MONUMENT
1845



IMPORTANT EVENTS

DODGE REBELLION - 1842
SCREW PROPELLER INTRODUCED INTO U.S. NAVY - 1844
TROUBLE WITH MORMONS - 1844



CORINTH DREDGING
1842



wished to conclude the Webster-Ashburton Treaty, then the subject of negotiation.

Most of the Whigs thereafter refused to recognize Tyler as a party leader. The Democrats rallied to his support, however, and in the Congressional elections of 1842 they overthrew the Whig majority and established themselves in the House by a majority of sixty-one—a change of eighty-six votes.

Legislation for the remainder of the Presidential term was in part a matter of compromises; the Whigs did not again press the bank act, and on some measures they acted with the President. A protective tariff bill was passed. Two river and harbor bills were presented, one for the eastern part of the country and another for the western section, the former being vetoed and the other signed by Tyler, because it contained appropriations for the Mississippi River, which he believed would be a national, not a sectional, benefit. The Webster-Ashburton Treaty was one of the outstanding features of the administration. Texas was annexed to the Union on March 3, 1845, the day before Tyler's term ended. Other and minor events are listed in the accompanying outline.

As Ex-President. JOHN TYLER

After his retirement from office Tyler spent several quiet years on his estate, three miles from his birthplace. The threat of civil war called him again into public life, and in February, 1861, he presided over a convention of the border states, held in Washington, D. C., and called to consider the situation presented by the secession of South Carolina. When Congress refused to accept the recommendations of the convention, Tyler urged his own state to secede, and in the fall of 1861 he was elected to the Confederate Congress. In January, 1862, he died, and was buried in Hollywood Cemetery, Richmond. In 1914 Congress appropriated \$10,000 for the erection of a monument in his memory.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:
Forbes Bill, Webster-Ashburton
Harrison, William H. Webster-Treaty

TYLER, TEX., the county seat of Smith County, about 100 miles southeast of Dallas,

on the Saint Louis Southwestern and Missouri Pacific railroads. There is an airport. The city is the center of fruit-growing in Eastern Texas. It ships large quantities of cotton, fruit and garden products. Industrial establishments include railway shops, canneries, box and crate factories, ice works, an oil mill, overall factories, fertilizer plants, and potteries. The city has a junior college. Noteworthy structures are a city hall, a Federal building, a Carnegie Library and a railroad hospital. The place was settled in 1846, and was chartered as a city in 1875. The city has long been governed on the commission plan. Population, 1920, 12,085; in 1930, 17,113.

TYLER, WAT, an English soldier, in 1381 a leader of what is known as *Wat Tyler's Rebellion*. When a poll tax was levied on the already overburdened English people, riots broke out, and a mob, led by Tyler, marched on London, pillaging as it went. The young king, Richard II, rode out to meet the rebels. He promised to grant them charters of freedom and amnesty and many of them, satisfied, dispersed. But Tyler, growing bold and insolent, made further demands, and William Walworth, mayor of London, stabbed him. The liberties granted were soon revoked, but the movement had the effect of hastening the general tendency toward the abolition of villeinage.

TYNDALB, TW'DL, WILLIAM (c.1536), an English reformer and translator of the Bible. He studied at Oxford and Cambridge and was ordained priest about 1521. Having made himself unpopular by the expression of certain heretical sentiments, he left England for the continent in 1524. After a visit to Luther at Wittenberg, he settled at Cologne, where he completed a translation of the New Testament, and on his expulsion from Cologne, he took refuge in Worms, where, in 1525, his translation was published. He translated the Pentateuch and the book of *Jonah*. When he openly opposed the divorce of Henry VIII from Catherine of Aragon, he was imprisoned in the castle of Vilvorde, near Brussels, and after a trial for heresy, he was strangled and his body was burned. In addition to the works mentioned, he wrote *The Obedience of a Christian Man and How Christian Rulers Ought to Govern*.

TYNDALL, JOHN (1820-1893), an Englishman and one of the world's greatest physiasts, was born at Leighlin Bridge. He



was largely self-taught, gaining his first scientific training as an ordnance surveyor and railway engineer. After teaching mathematics at Queenwood College, he went to Germany for study and received a doctor's degree from the University of Marburg. He became a professor of natural philosophy at the Royal Institution in 1853, and on the death of Faraday was appointed director. While he gave his chief attention to a study of radiant heat, he also made important experiments with light. In 1872 and 1873 he lectured in America.

Especially noteworthy was his effort to popularize science—to bring it within the reach of ordinary men. *Fragments of Science for Unscientific People*, *The Glaciers of the Alps* and *Hours of Exercise in the Alps* are among his "popular" writings. Other noteworthy books are *Heat as a Mode of Motion*, *Lectures on Light*, *On Sound* and *Contributions to Molecular Physics in the Domain of Radiant Heat*.

TYPE, a piece of metal, wood or other material, on one end of which is cast or engraved a letter, figure or other character. The earliest types were made of wood, and in style they resembled the script letters used in copying books before the invention of the art of printing. The parts of a type are (1) the body, (2) the face, (3) the shoulder, (4) the neck and (5) the groove. The *face* is that part that does the printing; the *neck* is to show the right side of the type when set, and the *groove* is to make it stand firmly on its base. In the early days of printing, each printer made his own type, but with the extension of the industry, type casting, or foundry, became a business by itself. A few of the large types used in printing are still made of wood, but all others are of type metal, which is an alloy, consisting of three



JOHN TYNDALL



A TYPE

parts of lead to one part of antimony, with a small quantity of tin and copper added.

Type are cast by machinery. A steel die, which is an exact pattern of the letter, is first made. This is driven into a piece of soft copper, so as to form a perfect impression of the letter. This is called the *matrix*. The matrix is then placed in a metallic box, called the *mold*. This is placed in the type-casting machine, which opens and closes the mold and fills it with type metal. The metal hardens instantly, and when the mold opens the type drops out. The face is then smoothed on a stone, and the body is nicked and grooved. The type are then tied up in packages, each of which contains only one kind of letter, and are ready for use. All types are ninety-two hundredths of an inch high.

A complete assortment of type is called a *font* and contains large and small capitals, small letters and italics, marks of punctuation and figures, in all, there are about 225 characters for English printing. The size of a font varies according to the work to be done with it. Small fonts contain from 500 to 800 pounds, and large ones have from 20,000 to 50,000 pounds. Type founders have a rule for determining the number of different letters necessary to make each font complete. Z requires the smallest number. For every s there will be 46 s's, 60 s's, 32 h's, 16 m's, and so on.

There are thirteen sizes of type in ordinary use in printing books and newspapers. These are designated by special names and by the number of points they measure, a point being $\frac{1}{72}$ of an inch. Both methods of naming are given in the illustration.

Nesperal	6-point
Minion	7-point
Brever	8-point
Bourgeois	9-point
Long Primer	10-point
Small Pica	11-point
Pica.	12-point
English	14-point

The smaller sizes are not used in general printing, although sometimes small Bibles are printed from 6½ point, or agate, and still smaller sizes are used for marginal references in Bibles and other works. The type used in job printing is of various sizes, to suit the taste and conditions of the advertiser. See PRINTING.

TYPE SETTING MACHINES. See
LATOTYPE; MONOTYPE.

TYPEWRITER, a machine for the rapid transcribing of letters, manuscripts, etc., as a substitute for handwriting. It was first successfully put into operation in 1875, and since that date has made its way into every kind of business house, court of law and governmental department where speed, accuracy and system in correspondence, the making of reports and tabulating of statistics are required. An average typewriter operator writes sixty words a minute, a rate three times that of a good penman, and the characters are much more legible. As women are the best operators of typewriters, the effect has been to bring thousands of them into the business world, where they have found opportunity to advance to responsible secretarial and executive positions.

The essential parts of the typewriter mechanism are a set of types, an arrangement of keys, for bringing the types in contact with the paper; a paper carriage, or carriage; a platen, or roller, against which the types strike, and an inking device. While there are many patterns of typewriters, from the earliest "Remington" to the latest make, full of new devices, all belong to two classes, those known as the *basket* machines and those known as *cylinder* machines. In the basket machines, each type is on the end of a bar, hung on a pivot and joined to its respective key by a lever attachment. These type bars are attached to a frame which was formerly circular, forming the basket from which the machine takes its name. In modern machines the frame is an arc of a circle. The bars are of such length that the type on each strikes the platen at the same point. When a key is depressed, the bar strikes the inking ribbon against the paper, making the impression of the character. As the bar drops back to its position, the carriage moves forward one space, thus putting the paper in position for the next letter.

The cylinder machines have the type arranged on a cylinder, and the depression of the key causes the cylinder to revolve to a point which allows the character desired to be pressed upon the paper by a little hammer. The arrangement of keys on all makes of typewriters is practically the same, the so-called universal keyboard is in use with but slight modifications on over ninety per cent of all models.

TYPHOID, *ty'foid*, FEVER, a germ disease caused by the presence of a bacillus which lodges in the intestines, spleen and mesenteric lymph nodes. The multiplication of the bacilli causes ulceration of the intestines, and when the ulcers perforate the intestinal membranes the disease is fatal. Typhoid germs enter the system through the mouth, from whence they find their way to the intestinal tract. Food and drink are the most common vehicles which serve as conveyors of the bacillus, and polluted water and milk are the most common sources of infection. Water containing sewage is a particularly dangerous carrier of bacilli.

Symptoms and Treatment. It requires from eight to fourteen days for the disease to develop after the germs have entered the system. The attack usually comes on slowly, and the patient may continue his regular work for a few days, but ultimately he will have to go to bed. The first symptoms are nausea, headache, pains in the back and limbs and sometimes nosebleed and chills. During the first week the fever rises about one degree a day, until the temperature reaches 103° or 104°. The fever remains stationary the second week; during the third week it should begin to subside, and convalescence should begin the fourth week, unless the case is one of unusual severity. Sometimes the ulcers penetrate the blood vessels of the intestines and cause hemorrhages, which may prove fatal. When the fever begins to decline the patient is in grave danger; he suffers from weakness, tremors of the muscles and possibly delirium, and he may die from weakness.

The treatment for typhoid fever is largely hygienic. The fever is kept down by sponging, and by cold packs and baths. Liquid nourishment, consisting of milk and broths, is given at intervals of about three hours to keep up the patient's strength, and medicines to counteract the effects of the germs are administered. Proper nursing is the most important part of the treatment.

Prevention. Excretions from the bowels and the urine of one affected with typhoid fever contain millions of germs, and all bodily discharges should be disinfected by strong solutions of corrosive sublimate, carbolic acid or chloride of lime. The bedding and clothing should be immersed in boiling water. All dishes, thermometers or other appliances used about the patient should be thoroughly dis-

infested every time they are used. Flies, when they have access to infested substances, gather the germs on their feet and carry them to other households. They are one of the prolific causes of the spread of the disease.

Typhoid is not contagious by the breath or by touch; it is conveyed only by carrying the germs. Vaccination with three hypodermic injections of a special vaccine is considered to render one immune for three years, army surgeons attribute the protection of the allied forces during the World War to this method of prevention. There have been widespread educational campaigns to teach people how to prevent typhoid fever, and as a result of this work there has been a marked decline in the number of cases since the beginning of the present century. The following directions issued by the New York City Department of Health should be observed by every family and community:

Keep yourself in good health. Do not use alcoholic drinks. Keep your home and your body clean. Always wash your hands before eating. Drink only the best milk, if in doubt, boil it. Drink only pure water, if in doubt, boil it. Eat only pure, good food. Fresh-cooked food is safest, heat kills the germs. Avoid salads, raw vegetables and raw oysters, unless you know they come from a clean place. Wash ice when it comes and keep the icebox clean. Do not put ice in drinking water or on food. Deal only with good, clean food stores. Don't eat at dirty restaurants. Keep flies out of your rooms and away from your food. Be careful when you go to the country, be sure of what you eat and do not drink from a strange spring or stream. Never visit where there is a case of typhoid fever. Be careful about friends who have had typhoid fever, they may be carriers. Where there is an outbreak of typhoid fever use only boiled water for drinking, and also boil milk just before it is used. If typhoid fever is in your house or neighborhood, or you are exposed to the disease in any way, or are likely to be, have yourself immunized.

TYPHOON, *tī'fōōn'*, the name applied to the hurricanes that sweep over the coast of China, and Japan and the neighboring archipelagos from May to November. The storms are most frequent and disastrous in July, August and September. The typhoons are cyclonic storms, which originate somewhat farther south than Manila and move towards Indochina. See HURRICANE.

TYPHUS, *tī'fūs*, **FEVER**, known, also, from the place where it occurs, as *Hospital fever*, *Jail fever* and by other names, is essentially a fever of the poor, ill-fed and badly-housed inhabitants of large cities. It is

infectious, and is carried by both body lice and head lice. A period of from five to twelve days passes after infection, before the first symptoms show themselves. Then the disease comes on suddenly, with a chill, followed by a high fever, sharp rheumatic pains and headache. Generally about the seventh day, a rash, of irregular spots of dusky hue, appears over the chest and back, and thus has given to the disease the common name of *spotted fever*. Delirium is almost always present during the second week, and after a marked crisis, followed by a sound sleep, the person awakes with the fever gone. Thereafter recovery is rapid. The disease is often fatal, especially where the best of care is not given the patient.

The treatment consists in keeping the sufferer in a well-ventilated room, and in preventing exhaustion by light, wholesome diet. One of the worst epidemics of typhus fever known in recent times occurred in Serbia in 1914-1915. Several cases were carried to New York by passenger steamers, and during the study of these cases Dr. Plotz discovered the germ which causes the disease.

TYRE, *tīrē*, one of the most celebrated cities of ancient Phoenicia, on the Mediterranean Sea, fifty miles south of Beirut and twenty-four miles southwest of Sidon. From 1200 to 850 B.C., it was a wealthy and magnificent city, the chief commercial center of the world, famous for its dyes and glassware. The original city occupied an island three-fourths of a mile from the mainland. In 332 B.C., when Alexander the Great besieged the city, he built a causeway out to the island, and the sands deposited by the sea upon this structure transformed the island into a peninsula. The modern town, called Sur, has a population of about 6,000.

TYROL, or **TIROL**, *tī'rōl*, before the dissolution of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy in 1918, a crownland of Austria, comprising the greater part of the political district of Tyrol and Vorarlberg. It lies in the heart of the Alpine region, and is noted for the charm and variety of its scenery, which is much like that of Switzerland. After the World War, Italy laid claim to this region, because a portion of the inhabitants are Italians, but the League of Nations awarded part of it to the new republic of Austria, with the capital at Innsbruck. The province of Tyrol has an area of 4,790 square miles and a population of about 800,000.



U, the twenty-first letter and the fifth vowel in the English alphabet. It comes from the Greek alphabet, as the Phoenician had no such character, and it was, until comparatively recent times, used interchangeably with *v*. In time, *v* came to be used for the consonant sound and *u* for the vowel sound, as in the case of *s* and *t*. The true primary sound of *u* was that which it still retains in most of the languages in Europe, that of *oo* in *cool*, the sound being sometimes short, sometimes long. The so-called "long *u*" in English, however, has a distinct *y* sound prefixed to the *oo* sound, as in *use*, *abuse*.

UDALL, NICHOLAS (1506-1556), the author of *Ralph Roister Doister*, the earliest English comedy. He was master of Eton School from 1534 to 1541, and the play was originally written for performance by the scholars. Udall was in favor at court as a writer of pageants and interludes.

UFFIZI, *oo'feet'se*, a famous palace in Florence, containing one of the most extensive and valuable art collections in the world. This gallery was founded by the Medicis family in the fifteenth century, and valuable additions have been made from time to time. In the collection are the statues *Venus de' Medici*, *The Dancing Faun* and *The Wrestlers*, and the works of great masters, such as Raphael, Michelangelo, Titian, Correggio, Holbein and Rembrandt. The Uffizi also contains the Biblioteca Nazionale, a collection of 300,000 volumes and 14,000 manuscripts. It is connected by covered passageway with the Pitti Palace (which see).

UGANDA, *oo'gah'ida*, the administrative division of British East Africa that forms the western part of the colony. It consists of the former native kingdom of Uganda and a number of adjacent states. Its area is 109,119 square miles, practically that of the state of Nevada. Of this area, 16,377 square

miles are water, for within the boundaries lie portions of Victoria Nyanza, Lake Edward, Lake Albert and Lake Rudolph, and all of lakes George, Kioga and Salisbury. The region around Lake Rudolph is low and generally unproductive. The western and south-western parts of the protectorate consist of rolling country and plateaus, varying in altitude from 2,000 to 4,000 feet, upon which mountain peaks rise to the height of 12,000 to 16,000 feet. Here are some of the most prominent mountains of Africa including the Ruwenzori, whose highest summit, Alexandra, has an altitude of 16,794 feet.

Gold is mined, and there is an abundance of iron throughout the country. Although the natives are quite skillful in working the ore, there is but little mining. With the exception of the Lake Rudolph region, the soil is generally fertile. The climate in the highland region of the southwest is pleasant and inviting, and this part of the protectorate holds great possibilities. Commercially, cotton is the most important crop, and its cultivation is being rapidly extended. Coffee, peanuts and cacao are among the other leading crops. Ivory and hides are exported.

In 1934 there were 3,630,000 inhabitants, and about 3,604,000 of these were natives. The Bantu, who are agriculturists, and the Baganda are the most important tribes. The Baganda, who number about 874,000, are noted for their intelligence. Most of them have embraced Christianity, and they are rapidly adopting the ways of civilization. They build permanent homes, and have done much in constructing roads and in developing the country since it was opened to Europeans. The country has railway, steamboat and telegraph communication.

The protectorate is divided into five provinces for the purpose of local administra-

tion. The native tribes maintain their own form of control in all local measures, and some of these governments are very efficient Entebbe is the seat of government and British headquarters, and Mengo is the native capital.

Uganda was first visited by Captain Speke in 1862. It was again visited in 1875 by Stanley, who wrote an extended description of the country and its people for his *Through the Dark Continent*.

UHLANS, *oo'lahns*, bodies of mounted lancers, chiefly employed in reconnoitering, skirmishing and outpost duty. They were of Eastern European origin, and formerly wore a semi-Oriental uniform with flowing sleeves and baggy trousers. Later, Uhlans became a part of several western armies. In the World War (1914-1918) the term was particularly applied to the Prussian light cavalry troops.

UINTA, *u'm'tah*, MOUNTAINS, a mountain range in Northeastern Utah, a part of the Rocky Mountain system, jutting at right angles from the Wasatch range. Its highest peaks are Gilbert Peak, 13,687 feet above sea level, Emmons Peak, 13,624 feet, and Wilson Peak, 13,300 feet. The Green River gorge cuts across the Uinta range, disclosing the varied strata of the mountains, some of which contain deposits of coal.

UKRAINE, *tek*, called also UKRAINTIA, a district in the southwestern part of European Russia, proclaimed an independent republic in November, 1917, at the time of the overthrow of the Kerensky régime by the Bolsheviks. The Ukraine is made up of those former Russian provinces inhabited by the Little Russians, or Ruthenians. Its estimated area is 174,201 square miles, and the population is about 32,000,000. Kiev is the capital. The Ukraine occupies a portion of one of the most fertile districts in Europe, and has been called the "granary of Russia."

Its career since the downfall of the czar has been very troubled. The government established in 1917 sent peace delegates to Brest-Litovsk, and a treaty with the Central Powers was signed on February 9, 1918. Germany expected to obtain large supplies of grain from the Ukrainians, but the peasants, who were angered by the methods employed, burned the stores in preference to handing them over to the Germans.

After the armistice was signed it was hoped that order might be restored, but the Ukraine shared all the tribulations of the other border-

Russian states. Its claims to the province of Galicia were disputed by Poland (it was given to Poland), and there was conflict with the Ruthenians over Bessarabia. (Ruthenia got it.) In addition, the Bolshevik government of Russia proper sent a "red" army into the region to establish soviet rule. After months of conflict peace was secured, and the Ukraine became federated with the Soviet government. In December, 1922, a treaty was concluded, placing the Ukraine under the Soviet Government. See RUSSIA.

ULCER, *ul'ser*, an open sore on the skin or any of the mucous membranes, both external and internal. The tendency of an ulcer is to eat away the underlying tissues. An abscess, on the other hand, usually begins in the tissues and works outward (see ABSCESS). Ulcers may be caused by constitutional disorders or through infection. Treatment consists in giving the patient fresh air, proper diet and hygienic surroundings, and providing local treatment for the sore. Such treatment must be prescribed by the attending physician. Ulcers due to tuberculosis can often be healed by exposure to sunlight.

ULTRAMARINE, *ul'trə'mär'ēn*, a beautiful and durable sky-blue pigment, a color formed of the mineral called lapis lazuli. This substance is much valued by painters, on account of the beauty and permanence of its color, both for oil and water painting.

ULYSSES, *ə'hē'ses*, called by the Greeks Odysseus, one of the most famous of their legendary heroes, an important character in the *Iliad*. Rejected by Helen, Ulysses married Penelope and settled down with her to a happy life. Shortly after the birth of his son Telemachus, the Trojan War broke out, and Ulysses, in spite of a vow to help Menelaus, was unwilling to leave home and engage in the struggle. In order to escape, he feigned madness, but Palamedes visited him and, becoming convinced of his sanity, made use of a stratagem. While Ulysses was plowing up the seashore and sowing it with salt, Palamedes placed the boy Telemachus in front of his father's plow, and Ulysses, carefully turning aside his team, unwittingly revealed the fact that his madness was merely feigned.

He was compelled to join the expedition and at Troy proved himself one of the bravest of the Greek heroes. The chief interest in Ulysses, however, attaches to his adventures while he was returning from Troy. Driven

to the country of the Lotus-eaters, he with difficulty broke the spell cast upon his companions and induced them to continue the voyage. Meeting with Polyphemus the Cyclops, he put him to death, thus offending Neptune, who constantly pursued him with his wrath. He was driven upon the island of Circe, he was placed in danger between Scylla and Charybdis, and he was borne, after the death of all of his companions, to the island of the nymph Calypso, where he remained for seven years. Returning at last to Ithaca, after wandering twenty years, he found Penelope in great trouble, but with the aid of Telemachus overcame her annoying suitors and made himself powerful again.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

Calypso *Penelope*
Circe *Polyphemus*

UMBELLIFERAE, *um'bel'i-fur'eez*, the parsley family of flowering plants, containing about 2,000 species, among which are the familiar garden varieties, carrot, parsnip, celery, anise, parsley, fennel and caraway. The flowers, usually inconspicuous and individual, are arranged in large umbrellahke groups, called umbels. The leaves contain oil and a resinous matter, sometimes of a poisonous character. The umbelliferae are distributed throughout the world, but are most abundant in the north temperate zone.

UMBER, a mineral pigment resembling ochre, yielding a brown paint when raw and a reddish paint when burnt. It is found in many localities in Europe, notably the island of Cyprus, and takes its name from Umbria, Italy, where it was first discovered. There are veins ofumber in Illinois, Pennsylvania and several other states.

UMBRELLA BIRD, a black South American bird, related to the crows and remarkable for its handsome drooping crest of blue-black feathers. It lives in the deep woods, depositing its eggs on a platform of sticks in the top of a high tree. Its cries are described as "lowings."

UNALASKA, *oo nah leh'kah*, one of the largest of the Aleutian Islands, about seventy-five miles long and twenty miles wide at its widest point. The chief settlement is Unalaska, or Iluluk, on the north side of the island. Population, 225, gradually decreasing. See **ALEUTIAN ISLANDS**.

UNCAS, *oo'lahs* (?-about 1683), an American Indian chief, born in the Pequot settlement in Connecticut. In 1685 he re-

balled against the head chief of the Pequots and founded a tribe of his own known as the Mohegan. In 1687 he combined with the colonists for the destruction of the Pequots and was given a portion of the conquered territory. His friendly intercourse with the colonists aroused the jealousy of the Narragansetts, who made war upon the Mohegans, and for the next few years Uncas was almost continually defending his territory from invasion. A monument has been erected in Norwich, Conn., in his honor.

UNCTION, or EXTREME UNCTION, a sacrament of the Roman Catholic Church, administered to the dying to give them strength and grace physically and spiritually in the hour of death. In this sacrament, the priest, dipping his thumb in the oil, anoints the sick person in the form of the cross upon the eyes, ears, mouth, nose, hands and feet, saying, "Through this Holy Unction and His most tender mercy, may the Lord pardon thee whatever sins thou hast committed by seeing Amen." He repeats the same, adapting it to the part anointed. The oil used in this sacrament must be blessed by the bishop, a ceremony performed each year on Maundy Thursday.

UNDERGROUND RAILROAD, the name applied to a method used by Northern abolitionists before the Civil War in assisting slaves from the South to escape from their masters. Regular routes were laid out, and certain houses at convenient intervals were designated as stations. Fleeing negroes were conducted secretly from one of these points to the next, given rest and food and prepared for the next stage in their journey. The most common routes were through Ohio and Pennsylvania, the goal of each being Canada. Among the prominent promoters of the underground railroad were Gerrit Smith, Theodore Parker and Levi Coffin. It is believed that fully 25,000 negroes were thus given liberty during the quarter century preceding the Civil War, fines inflicted on detection for violation of the Fugitive Slave Law having little effect on the abolitionists. An interesting account of the system occurs in Mrs. Stowe's *Uncle Tom's Cabin*.

UNDERGROUNDF RAILWAY. See **SUBWAY**.

UNDERWOOD, Oscar W. (1862-1929), an American statesman, one of the prominent Democrats in Congress of the present

decade. He was born in Lomaville, Ky., and was educated in that city and at the University of Virginia. After completing a law course, he was admitted to the bar in 1884 and began practice in Birmingham, Ala. Entering politics, he was elected to Congress and took his seat in the lower house in 1895 as Representative of the Ninth Alabama district. This office he held until 1915. In the special session of Congress called by President Wilson in 1913 to revise the tariff, Underwood, who was chairman of the Ways and Means Committee and majority leader in the House, took a prominent part in framing the tariff law that bears his name (see TARIFF). He was elected to the Senate in 1914 and re-elected in 1920.

UNEMPLOYMENT. In all countries, at all times, a certain proportion of laborers—skilled and unskilled—are out of work. The term *unemployment* is applied in economies to this industrial condition. The unemployed may be divided into two general classes—those who are out of work because of conditions beyond their control, and those indolent men who will not work as long as they can obtain a living from others. This article considers only the first class.

Causes of Unemployment. The following are some of the chief causes of unemployment:

1. **Change of Season.** Some occupations depend upon the season, such as those of bricklayers, stonemasons, and others included in the building trades. In cold countries these occupations must cease during the winter.

2. **Fluctuation of Demand.** A number of industries have their dull seasons and their busy seasons. Clothing and millinery are good illustrations of industries of this class.

3. **New Inventions and Discoveries.** The introduction of new machinery and of new processes of manufacture always throw a number of workmen out of employment temporarily, but men thrown out in this way are usually given employment in some other occupation, if they are willing to make the change.

4. **Change of Location.** Occasionally an industry is removed to a distant locality, and some of the workmen are unable or unwilling to remove to the new location and are left without employment. This condition is frequently brought about by combining firms under one ownership. For economic reasons some of the plants thereafter might be closed.

5. **Congestion of Labor.** Every year thousands of men and women flock to the great cities for the purpose, as they suppose, of bettering their condition. To these other thousands are added by immigration. Usually

there are more laborers in large cities than the regular industries can profitably employ.

6. **Industrial Depression.** During periods of prosperity there is a tendency to produce commodities in excess of the demand for them. In course of time the market becomes overstocked, manufacturers have their capital invested in products that they cannot sell, and production is greatly restricted or entirely suspended. When this occurs, large numbers of workmen are without jobs.

7. **Labor Troubles.** Disagreements between employers and employees over wages and other conditions all too frequently lead to strikes and lockouts, causing large numbers to be thrown out of employment for indefinite periods. In these contests both parties generally lose. See *Labor Organizations, Strike*.

Means of Prevention. From the nature of the problem statistics of unemployment are incomplete, and consequently are of little value. Much time and effort have been expended in trying to solve the problem, yet it is found that the unemployed in the United States include from 5 to 15 per cent of the laboring population. This means that at all times there are several million idle workmen, regardless of economic conditions. The following measures have been taken or suggested to remedy this condition:

1. **Labor Bureaus.** The establishing of labor bureaus, which register applications for positions and calls for workmen, has been found an excellent means of bringing the workman and the employer together. The United States Department of Labor through branch bureaus located in different parts of the country is serving as a general clearing house for the unemployed, and its services are very beneficial. A number of states also have established free employment bureaus. In addition to these there are many private bureaus that operate on a commission basis.

2. **Publishing Labor Conditions.** It is the opinion of those who have devoted much study to this problem that regular publication by responsible authorities, state or national, of the condition of the labor market in great cities might check the influx of laborers to these centers.

3. **Shorter Days.** Some recommend the adopting of a shorter day, so it would require more workmen to keep production up to the standard. However, the results of this experiment everywhere it has been tried have not shown the measure to be effective.

4. **Restriction of Immigration.** A large proportion of immigrants remain in the ports where they land, the balance go to other cities or to mining regions, where there is usually a congestion of labor.

5. **Agricultural Colonies.** With rare exceptions there is a scarcity of labor in the country. Could many of these workmen who are out of employment be induced to remove

to farms, they might become prosperous, but special inducements are necessary to lead them to make this change. States having large areas of vacant land, philanthropic organizations and the United States government are interested in establishing farm colonies.

UNGAVA, *ung' pah' və*, formerly a territory of Canada, but united to Quebec in 1912, the year in which so many provincial boundaries in the Dominion were changed. In the same year the province of Quebec formed a new territory under its jurisdiction, called the Territory of New Quebec. In this Ungava was included. It has an area of 351,730 square miles. The population is about 14,500, of these 8,300 are white people, 2,500 are Indians and 2,000 are Eskimos. See *LABRADOR*.

UNGULATES, an order of mammals including the buffalo, camel, cow, deer, elephant, pig, goat, sheep, and related animals, generally characterized by strong molar teeth for the chewing of vegetable food, horny hoofs, which enclose their toes, and, in many cases, by the ability to run with speed. Ungulates are the only animals that have horns. They are important in human economy, furnishing man with food, clothing, working power and means of transportation.

Related Articles Consult the following titles for additional information:

Antelope	Elephant	Pier
Buffalo	Giraffe	Rhinoceros
Camel	Goat	Rhinoceros
Cattle	Hippopotamus	Sheep
Deer	Horse	Tapir

UTIGORN, a fabulous animal of Greek and Roman mythology, similar to a horse but having a horn on its forehead. With the horn it forms a part of the British coat of arms.

UNIFORMS, MILITARY AND NAVAL A uniform is a distinguishing dress worn by members of armies, navies and other organizations. This article treats of military and naval uniforms only. Since the beginning of the present century, the military uniforms of the leading nations have been radically changed. The display dress of former times has been replaced by one designed especially for comfort and service. The change was inaugurated by Great Britain, because at the beginning of the South African War the uniforms of the British soldiers were too heavy for service in a hot country.

The old uniforms were replaced by those of khaki. The color adopted was the same as that of the khaki-colored uniforms used in

India. The cut was loose, the coat had patch pockets and the trousers were tight at the knee. The lower leg was protected by boots, leather leggings, or strips of strong woolen material called puttees, which were wound around the leg. This type of uniform proved to be so comfortable and serviceable that it has been practically copied by all the leading nations, each making such modifications in color and minor particulars as would distinguish its uniform from that of other nations. The service uniform of the German army was a greenish-gray, and that of Italy is a brownish-gray. The French, however, still retain the blue and red color scheme of former days.

United States The service dress of the United States army is of khaki; the cut is similar to that of the British uniform described above. A cap of the same material and color is worn, but when the soldier is in battle this cap is replaced by a metal helmet.

Brock and Lane Badges Each branch is distinguished by a badge. Members of the general staff wear the United States coat of arms of gold and enamel on a silver star. A shield marks the department of the adjutant-general, and the inspector-general is designated by a crossed sword and fasces with a wreath. A sword and key crossed on a wheel and surmounted by a sprad eagle is the badge of the quartermaster-general. Members of the medical staff wear the caduceus, or wand of mercury; engineers are indicated by a metal castle, and members of the signal corps by two crossed signal flags and a torch in gold and silver. The badges for officers are as follows: infantry, two crossed rifles with the number of the regiment above the intersection; for cavalry, two crossed sabers; and for artillery, two crossed guns.

Distinctions in Rank A brigadier-general is designated by one star on the shoulder strap, and a major-general by two stars. On shoulder knot and shoulder loop the general wears a coat of arms between two stars; lieutenant-general, one large star between two small ones; major-general, two silver stars; brigadier-general, one silver star, colonel, a silver eagle; lieutenant-colonel, a silver leaf; major, a gold leaf; captain, two silver bars; first lieutenant, one silver bar; second lieutenant, one gold bar. The rank of noncommissioned officers is indicated by

chevrons on the coat. All officers, without distinction of rank, wear the letters *U S* in Gothic design on the collar.

Gold chevrons on the lower part of the sleeve of soldiers returning from the World War indicated the length of service abroad, there being one chevron for every six months of service.

The Navy. The uniforms worn in the United States navy may be considered typical of those in other navies, since naval uniforms are similar throughout the world. Three uniforms—dress, undress and service—are furnished to every member of the navy. The dress uniform consists of a double-breasted blue broadcloth coat with a high collar and gilt buttons, blue trousers with a strip of gold lace along the seam, epaulets, hat and sword. The service uniform includes a blue or white blouse, with white braid. Thus or the undress uniform is worn during hot weather and in the tropics.

Officers and cadets wear on the cap a silver shield surmounted by a spread eagle, the design being mounted on two gold anchors crossed. Rank is indicated by special emblems on collar, epaulet and shoulder strap. An admiral wears on the sleeve two strips of two-inch gold lace with a one-inch strip between; a rear-admiral wears a half-inch strip of gold lace above a two-inch strip, epaulet, four half-inch strips; commander, three strips; lieutenant-commander, two half-inch strips with a quarter-inch strip between; lieutenant, two half-inch strips; lieutenant (junior grade) one half-inch strip with one quarter-inch strip above, ensign, one half-inch strip; cadet, one quarter-inch strip.

UNION. Act of 1867, an act of the British Parliament in 1867 for uniting Upper and Lower Canada. It was the result of the Earl of Durham's famous *Report on the Affairs of British North America*, and was favored at the time by the legislatures of both Upper and Lower Canada. Under the Act of Union, Canada was governed by a legislative council of not more than twenty members, appointed by the Crown, and a legislative assembly in which the provinces had equal representation. It was never entirely satisfactory in its operation, however, and was succeeded, in 1867, by the organization of the Dominion of Canada.

UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA, a self-governing state of the British Empire,

widely known for its mineral wealth and consisting of the provinces of the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, Orange Free State and the Transvaal. It was established by an act of Parliament in 1910, and became a member of the British Commonwealth of Nations in 1926. Its area is 472,550 square miles, its population, about 8,000,000, one-fifth white.

Agriculture. The country consists of plateaus and rolling plains, or veldts, which are almost treeless and afford excellent pasture. The climate is temperate, and the soil is fertile. Wherever there is sufficient rainfall, excellent crops can be grown, but stock raising is the chief agricultural occupation. Millions of sheep are pastured on the prairies, and wool is the staple of wealth among the farmers. Angora goats and cattle are also raised in large numbers, and ostrich farming has become an important industry. Sugar cane and tea are successfully cultivated in the warmest regions. Wheat and fruits are important products of the Cape Province. It is claimed that the Union of South Africa has such a variety of climate as to admit of the successful cultivation of all crops within its borders.

Mineral Resources. The mines constitute the greatest source of wealth, and the discovery of the vast deposits of gold and rich diamond fields brought the country into universal notice. The principal gold mines are in the Witwatersrand in the Transvaal, and the output of these mines is about \$250,000,000 each year. The most valuable diamond mines are around Kimberley, and the yearly output of diamonds has exceeded \$50,000,000. There are valuable copper mines in Namaqualand, and extensive deposits of coal and iron have been discovered in the Cape Province and Natal. Silver, graphite and manganese occur in paying quantities, and marble and other building stone are found.

Transportation and Communication. The roads are fair in the settled districts, and mail carts and other wagons connect large towns off the railways with these lines of transportation. All the important ports of the south and east coast are connected by railway, and these lines are joined to the Cape-to-Cairo Railway, extending from Cape Town into the interior of the continent. At the end of 1934 there were 13,000 miles of railways in the South African railway system. There were about 86,000 miles of telegraph line, and

the telephone lines carried over 400,000 miles of wire. The country has over 3,200 post-offices and an efficient mail service.

Government. The government is organized on the same plan as the governments of Canada and Australia. The chief executive is the Governor-General, who is appointed by the Crown. He is aided by an Executive Council of his own selection. The Parliament consists of a Senate of forty members (eight appointive and thirty-two elective) and a House of Assembly of 150 members elected by the people. Each province has its local government, consisting of a lieutenant-governor and a legislative assembly. The courts are guided by Dutch law in settling civil suits, and both Dutch and English languages are used. Both of these languages are taught in the schools.

History. The early history of the provinces is given under their respective titles. Before the South African War there was a constant struggle between the Dutch and English settlers. The war gave the English the ascendancy, and the ablest of the Dutch leaders soon joined the English leaders in an effort to establish a permanent government that would be satisfactory to all parties; their efforts resulted in establishing a federated state including the five provinces. Several clashes with the natives have occurred, and soon after the outbreak of the World War the country was threatened with a serious rebellion, but the rebels were defeated.

The Union gave notable assistance to the Allies in that war. British and Union soldiers took German Southwest Africa early in the war, and at its conclusion the Union was given the mandate to govern it.

In 1926 the Union sent delegates to the Imperial Conference in London, that historic meeting which made the six leading colonial outposts of the Empire free members of the British Commonwealth of Nations. Statesmen of the Union were prominent in these deliberations. Efforts to incorporate Rhodesia into the Union were not successful.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

Cape of Good Hope.	Natal
Provinces of the	Orange Free State
Cape Town	Pretoria
Johannesburg	South African War
Kimberley	Transvaal, The

UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS See RUSSIA

UNIT, a single thing regard as an undivided whole. In arithmetic the term is

also used to denote the least whole number, one or unity, represented by the figure 1. In mathematics and physics, a unit is any known determinate quantity, by which any other quantity of the same kind is measured, as a foot, a second, a degree, a square yard (see WEIGHTS AND MEASURES). Below are given the more important special units used in physics.

The *unit of specific gravity*, for solids or liquids, is the specific gravity of one cubic foot of distilled water at 62° F., for air and gases, of one cubic foot of atmospheric air at 62° F. The *unit of heat*, or the *thermal unit*, is the quantity of heat required to raise one pound of pure water from a temperature of 59° F. to a temperature of 40° F., or, in the metric system, the amount of heat required to raise a gram of pure water from a temperature of 3.94° C. to 4.94° C.

In electricity the *unit of quantity* is that quantity of electricity, which, with an electro-motive force of one volt, will flow through a resistance of 1,000,000 ohms in one second; it is called a *farad*. The *unit of electric current* is a current of one farad a second. The *unit of physical work* is that amount of work which will produce a velocity of one meter per second in a mass weighing one gram, after acting upon it a second of time. The *dynamic unit* is the unit expressing the quantity of force or the amount of work done, as the *foot-pound*.

In physical calculations the system of units now in general use is that known as the *G. G. S. System*, based upon the metric system of weights and measures, in which the centimeter is the *unit of length*, the gram is the *unit of mass* and the second the *unit of time*. Consequently, the *unit of area* is the square centimeter, the *unit of volume*, the cube centimeter; the *unit of velocity*, a velocity of one centimeter per second. The *unit of momentum* is the momentum of a gram moving with a unit velocity.

For definitions of units of measurement in other fields of work, see articles on those units, as FOOT POUND, DOLLAR.

UNITARIANS, a religious denomination believing in one God, the Father, and not in a Trinity of Father, Son and Holy Spirit. They accept Christ as a divinely appointed teacher, to be followed, but not worshipped, and regard the Bible as an endeavor of the religion of the spirit to express itself in literature. The Unitarians have no creed, their

faith may be summed up in the words of James Freeman Clarke, "the fatherhood of God, the brotherhood of man, the leadership of Jesus, salvation by character and the progress of mankind upward and onward forever." In 1819, Dr Channing of Boston led a movement which turned 150 of the New England churches to Unitarianism. See CHANNING, WILLIAM ELLIOT.

UNITED CHURCH OF CANADA, a union of the Methodist, Congregational, and Presbyterian churches of Canada, effected in 1925. It was brought about partly by decreasing emphasis on doctrinal differences among Protestant bodies, but quite as much by realization of unnecessary expenditure of effort and waste of resources through overlapping of activities. Especially in the newer sections of Western Canada had the burden of maintaining denominational unity become heavy, sparsely settled communities weakly supported a number of churches.

The movement in the direction of unity began in 1889. By 1912 the Methodists and Congregationalists had expressed themselves favorably, action by the Presbyterian General Assembly was deferred until the end of the World War. In 1924 the Canadian Parliament passed the permissive act of union, effective in one year. In this act doctrinal points to guide the new Church and rules for organization were set forth in detail.

UNITED DAUGHTERS OF THE CONFEDERACY See CONFEDERACY, UNITED DAUGHTERS OF THE.

UNITED EMPIRE LOYALISTS, the name given to those British colonists in America who remained loyal to the King, and refused to join the majority who in 1776 declared their independence of Great Britain. About 40,000 of these colonists left New England and other colonies to the south and crossed the border into Canada, and made new homes there. Many moved to Nova Scotia and Quebec, but most of them settled in New Brunswick and Southern Ontario and were an important element in the creation of these provinces. It was said that this great migration "was the saving of British interest in the great region which England still retained in North America."

UNITED KINGDOM, THE officially THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND, a term formally adopted in 1801 to indicate the political union of England, Ireland, Scotland and Wales. When recognition

was given in 1922 to the new status of a large part of Ireland as the Irish Free State, the old official designation was no longer justified by the facts. No immediate steps were taken to change the name, but in 1927 the British Parliament decreed that the term thenceforth should be THE UNITED KINGDOM OR GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND. See GREAT BRITAIN.

UNITED METHODIST CHURCH, a sect known also as United Methodists, was organized in England in 1907 by religious men who refused to conform to the established Methodist usages. Three branches of Methodism joined to form the new Church, namely, the United Methodist Free Churches, the Bible Christians, and the Methodist New Connection. This new organization was further augmented in 1932 by union with the Wesleyan Methodists and the Primitive Methodists. Thus in England the various Methodist bodies have sought and secured a degree of unity such as the American Methodists achieved a few years later.

UNITED STATES COAST GUARD See COAST GUARD.

UNITED STATES COURTS See COURTS, subhead *United States Courts*.



UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, one of the world's great powers, the oldest of the great republics, although one of the youngest nations. It occupies the central part of North America, having Canada for its northern neighbor and Mexico on its southwestern border. The tides of the Atlantic wash its eastern shores, the Gulf of Mexico its southern, while the western look out upon the broad Pacific, aptly styled the "American Ocean." The greatest extent from east to west is 3,100 miles, and from north to south 1,700 miles. The area of continental United States is 3,026,789 square miles, of which 43,000 square miles are water. But to this area the outlying possessions add about 716,700 square miles, making the total area of the territory under control of the United States government 3,743,478 square miles. The British Empire and China are larger than the United States, including its outlying possessions, and

Brazil is larger than continental United States. The British Empire and China have each about four times the population of the United States, but Brazil has only about one-fourth as many inhabitants.

Geographic Advantages. Human development has always been influenced by geographic conditions, chief among which are climate, soil and relative location. When these conditions are applied to the United States, it is seen that it is more highly favored geographically than most other nations. The country lies wholly within the north temperate zone, which has been the home of the great civilizations of history; it lies between two great oceans, almost equally distant from the other great land masses of the earth, with which it has easy communication; mountain and valley, hill and plain are so interspersed as to adapt the country as a whole to all kinds of industry; while the great interior, with its broad plains, fertile soil and abundant rainfall is the richest agricultural region of the world. Great rivers furnish natural waterways leading far into the interior and affording inexpensive transportation, while thousands of mountain streams turn the wheels of industry. The ease with which railways can be constructed has caused all parts of the country to be bound together with bands of steel, and commodious harbors on the seaboard accommodate ships laden with the products of all climes. These conditions, combined with the energy, intelligence and genius of the American people, have placed the United States in the foremost position among the great nations of the world.

Boundaries and Coastal Features. West of the 95th meridian the northern boundary is formed by the 49th parallel of north latitude until the Pacific coast is reached, then it extends southward to the Strait of Juan de Fuca, thus placing Vancouver Island within the Dominion of Canada. East of the 95th meridian the northern boundary is very irregular. That portion of it between the meridian and Lake Superior is formed by the Rainy and Pigeon rivers. Through the Great Lakes the boundary line follows the deepest channel, which divides Lakes Huron, Erie and Ontario nearly equally between the two nations, but gives the larger part of Lake Superior to the United States. Following Lake Ontario the boundary is formed for a short distance by the St. Lawrence River, then across New York and Vermont by the 45th parallel,

thence it follows the Height of Land in an irregular course to the northeast, until the northerly point of Maine is reached. From there the boundary is completed by the Saint John's River, a short, arbitrary line and the Saint Croix River. A portion of the southern boundary is formed by the Rio Grande.

The northern boundary affords the finest example in the world of international faith. By mutual agreement between the United States and Great Britain there has never been a fortification erected along its entire length nor has either nation ever placed a warship or even a gunboat on the Great Lakes. The integrity of the boundary has never been violated.

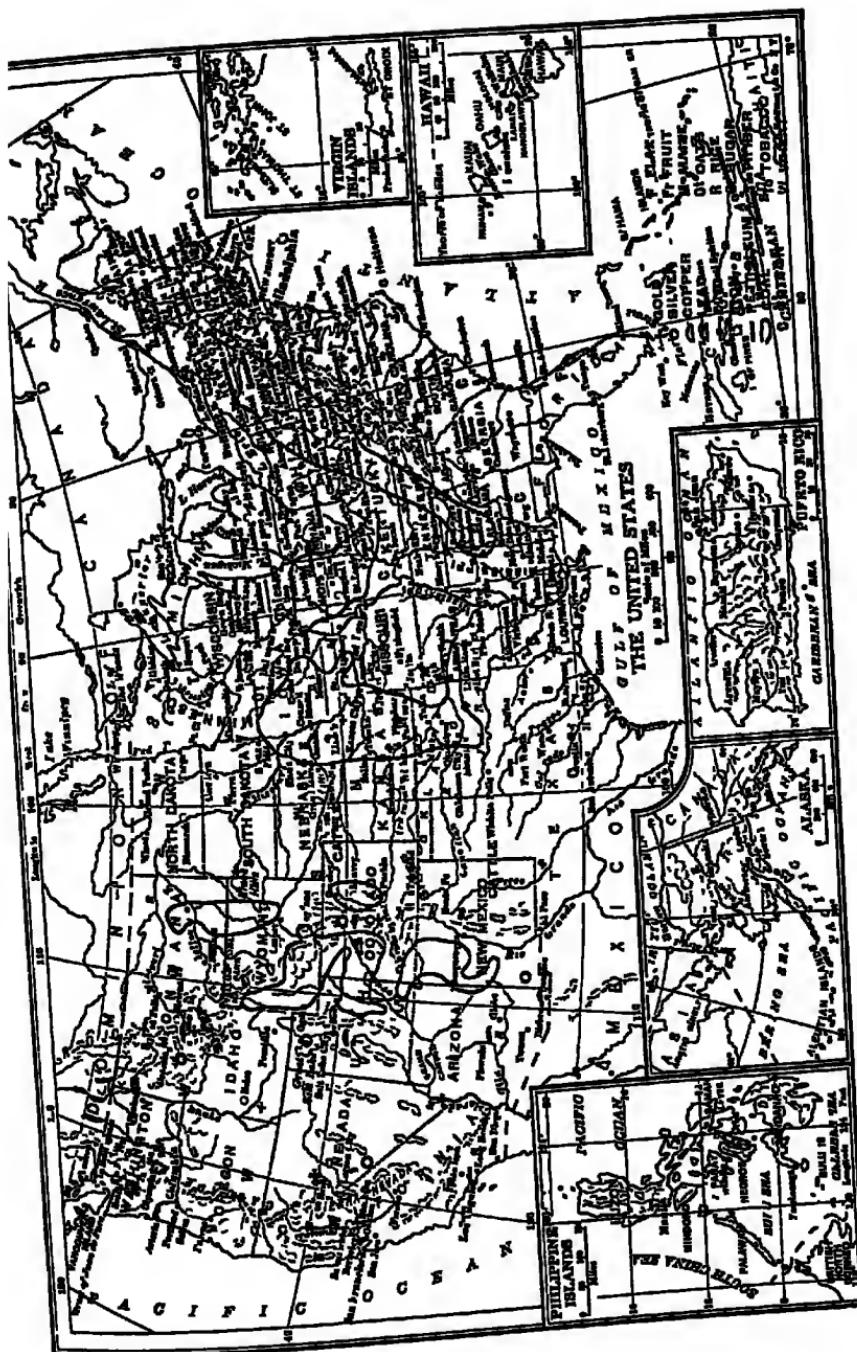
The prominent projections are, on the Atlantic coast, Cape Cod, Cape Hatteras and the peninsula of Florida; on the Gulf coast, Cape San Blas and the delta of the Mississippi, and on the Pacific coast, Cape Mendocino. The important coast waters are, on the Atlantic, Massachusetts Bay, Long Island Sound, Delaware Bay, Chesapeake Bay, Albemarle Sound and Pamlico Sound, on the Gulf, Apalachee Bay and Mobile Bay, and on the Pacific, San Francisco Bay and Puget Sound. The coast line of the entire country, exclusive of the Great Lakes, is 12,101 miles. The Atlantic coast is 6,017 miles, the Gulf, 3,551, and the Pacific, 2,583.

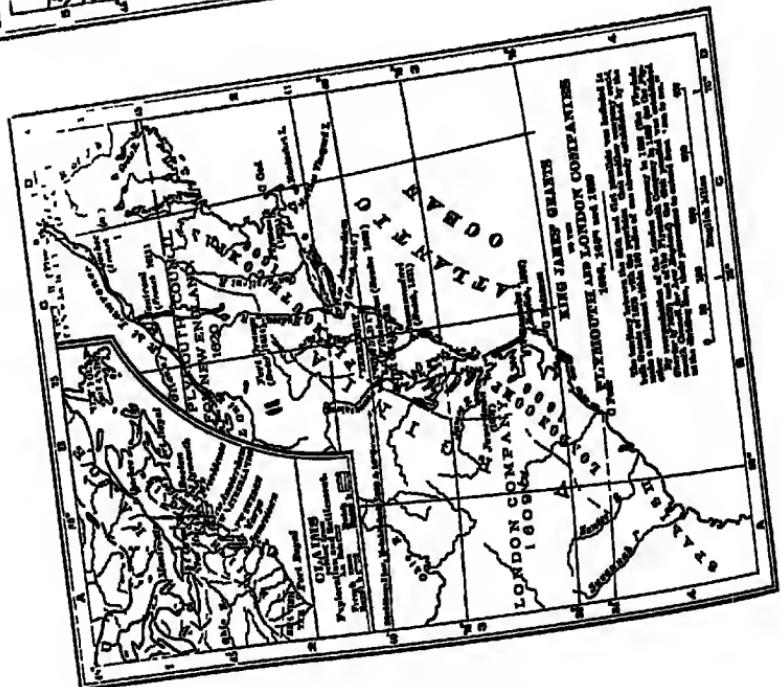
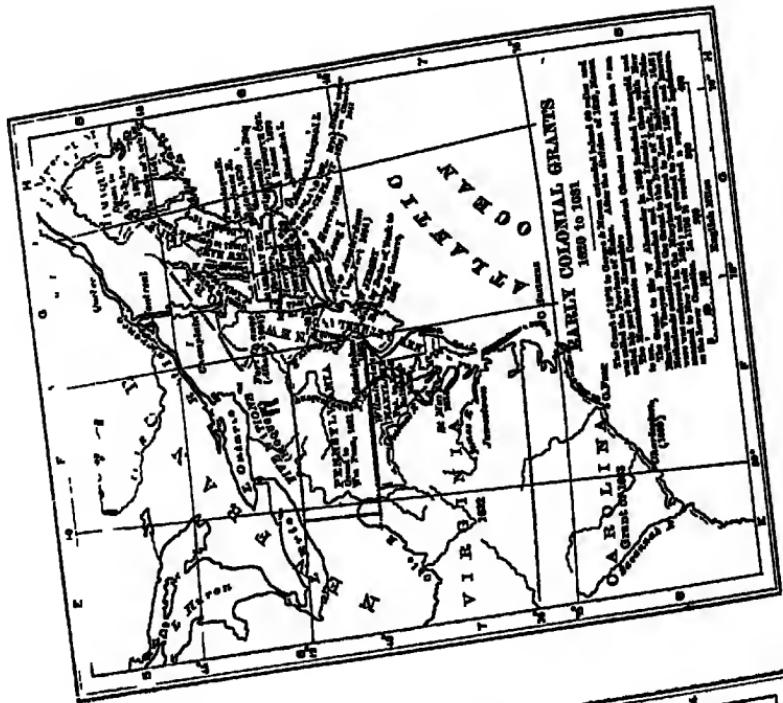
The chief islands on the Atlantic coast are Nantucket, Martha's Vineyard, Long, Manhattan, Staten, Roanoke and Florida Keys, in the Gulf of Mexico, Tortugas, Saint George's, Santa Rosa, the Chandeleur group, Galveston and Padre, on the Pacific, Santa Catalina, the Santa Barbara group and San Juan.

Surface and Drainage

The vast extent of territory embraced within the United States contains a great variety of surface, but this is naturally divided into five regions—the Atlantic Slope, the Appalachian Highlands, the Central Plain, the Rocky Mountain Highlands and the Pacific Slope.

The Atlantic Slope. This region embraces a narrow strip of land extending from the northeastern corner of Maine to Florida. In the northern part it is extremely narrow, and the slope is steep. The irregularity of the coast line produces numerous good harbors, upon which some of the largest cities of the country are located. Chief among these indentations are Boston Bay, New York





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RELIEF MAP OF THE UNITED STATES



Bay, Delaware Bay and Chesapeake Bay. South of Long Island the coast region consists of a tract of level land, varying from 75 to 300 miles in width, known as the Atlantic coastal plain. Along the shore and for a short distance inland the surface is low, level and, in many places, marshy. The land then rises gradually until it meets the Piedmont region, or foothills of the Appalachians, which consist of the remains of an old, worn-down mountain system, formed previous to the present Appalachian system. Where the plain joins the Piedmont region, there is a marked elevation, known as the Fall Line because the rivers reaching the Atlantic fall over this uplift, producing numerous rapids and affording excellent water power.

Appalachian Highlands. This region constitutes the eastern continental barrier and extends from the Gulf of Saint Lawrence to within about 300 miles of the Gulf of Mexico. The trend of the mountains is from the northeast to the southwest. The region consists of a low plateau, from 1,500 to 3,000 feet in altitude, upon which are a number of parallel ranges of mountains. The northern part of the plateau is quite broken, and the mountains are disconnected, forming separate ranges or groups, as the Green Mountains, the White Mountains and the Adirondacks. South of this division, however, the plateau is continuous and is surmounted by a number of parallel ranges of low mountains, such as the Blue Ridge, the Alleghenies and others. The highest peaks in these highlands are Mount Washington (6,283 feet), in the White Mountains, and Mount Mitchell (6,711 feet), in the Black Mountains of North Carolina. On their western slope these highlands descend by a series of foothills to the prairie region in the central plain.

Central Plain. This occupies the vast interior of the country, and embraces that portion of the great central plain of North America included within the boundaries of the United States. It is naturally divided into three regions, the great plain, the lake region and the gulf region.

The Great Plains. East of the Mississippi, this plain occupies that portion of the interior between the Ohio River and the lake region. Here it descends from the western foothills of the Appalachians to the broad, level prairies which compose most of the

states bordering on the Mississippi. This stretch of level or slightly rolling land continues westward, until it rises in gradual swells to meet the foothills of the Rocky Mountain highlands, where it attains an elevation of from 3,000 to 6,000 feet. With the exception of the Black Hills in South Dakota and Wyoming, the Ozark Plateau, which extends eastward from the southern boundary of Kansas, crossing Arkansas, the southern part of Missouri and the southern part of Illinois, this level tract of land extends southwestward into Texas and westward until it joins the Staked Plains in the northwestern part of that state. With the exception of the forests in Northern Minnesota and in the Ozark Region, this entire portion of the country is nearly treeless. Timber is found only along streams and in regions where trees have been planted by settlers. These vast tracts of level, treeless land are generally known as *prairies*. Their deep, rich soil, abundant rainfall and salubrious climate make the prairies the most valuable agricultural region in the world.

Lake Region. The Lake region constitutes that portion of the United States which drains into the Great Lakes, and thence through the Saint Lawrence River into the Atlantic. The Height of Land, forming the southern boundary of this region, is nearly parallel with the southern shores of Lakes Ontario and Erie. It extends across the northern part of Ohio, Indiana and Illinois, thence turns northward, to include the eastern portion of Wisconsin, all of Michigan and the northwestern part of Minnesota. The region within the United States is not large. It is either level or rolling, nowhere having high altitudes and much of it was formerly heavily timbered, but the lumbering interests have greatly reduced the forest area. The most distinctive feature of this region is the presence of the great inland seas, which lie wholly or partially within its boundaries.

Gulf Region. The Gulf region includes the lowlands bordering on the Gulf of Mexico and extending inland until they meet the foothills of the Appalachian Highlands. In the valley of the Mississippi, this plain extends northward to the Ohio River, and west of the Mississippi it extends northward to the Ozark Mountains. Along the coast the land is low, level and swampy, but with the exception of that immediately in the vicinity of the Mississippi River, it rises gradually to-

ward the interior, until it reaches a height of 300 to 500 feet. The plain includes all of the southern and southeastern parts of Texas, and in that state it is from 150 to 200 miles in width.

Rocky Mountain Highlands. This region occupies nearly one-third of the area of the country, and consists of a great plateau, upon which rise several ranges of mountains. This plateau reaches its greatest height and width in Colorado and Wyoming. Here it is nearly 1,000 miles wide and from 7,000 to 8,000 feet in altitude. On its eastern slope it rises from the plain in a series of elevations, until the Rocky Mountains, which form its eastern boundary, are reached. These extend entirely across the country and contain numerous peaks, with altitudes of 14,000 feet or more. The western border of the plateau is formed by the Cascade Mountains, in the north, and their southern continuation, the Sierra Nevadas. These mountains contain some peaks higher than those found in the Rocky Mountains. Their eastern slope, since they rise from the plateau, is less abrupt than the western, which descends to the valley between them and the low ranges.

Between these mountain barriers, the surface of the great plateau is widely diversified by lesser ranges, extending in various directions. These ranges divide this vast inland region into three well-marked divisions, the Columbia Plateau, in the north, the Great Basin, and the Colorado Plateau. The first occupies the mountain regions of Washington, Oregon and Idaho. The Great Basin includes nearly all Nevada and Utah and a small portion of Oregon and California; it is entirely surrounded by mountains, and its rivers find no outlet, hence it contains a number of salt lakes and marshes, the most noted among which is Great Salt Lake. South of this, and occupying a small part of Nevada, nearly all of Colorado, a part of Utah, most of Arizona and New Mexico and the southern part of California, is the Colorado Plateau, marked by many high peaks and the deep gorges of its streams. Within the Rocky Mountain Highlands are located several of the great national parks.

The Pacific Slope. Between the Sierra Nevada and Cascade mountains and the coast are low parallel ranges, known as the Coast Ranges. West of these is the narrow strip of land bordering upon the ocean. This low land is much narrower than that bordering

upon the Atlantic, but between the mountains are several valleys noted for their fertility. Chief among these are the valleys of the San Joaquin and Sacramento rivers, the region around San Francisco Bay and that around Puget Sound. Farther inland, in the southeastern part of California, is Death Valley, a remarkable depression, 275 feet below sea level.

Rivers. The United States is drained by five river systems—the Lake system, the Atlantic system, the Gulf system, the Pacific system and the Great Basin system. The portion of the country drained by the Lake system is comparatively small, and the streams flowing into it are generally short and of little importance, though the Saint Lawrence River, forming the outlet of this drainage area, is one of the most important streams in North America.

Owing to the position of the Appalachian Highlands, the rivers of the Atlantic system are short and many of them are rapid. However, the largest of these streams enter the ocean by broad estuaries, which afford excellent harbors, and some of them, particularly the Hudson, the Delaware and the Potomac, cut their way through the mountains, forming deep gorges remarkable for their beautiful scenery. The most important of these rivers, in order, beginning at the north, are the Penobscot, the Kennebec, the Merrimac, the Connecticut, the Hudson, the Delaware, the Potomac, the James, the Pee Dee, the Santee, the Savannah and the Altamaha. Most of these streams afford excellent water power and the banks of the Merrimac and many others are lined with factories.

The rivers of the Gulf system include the Appalachians, the Alabama, the Pearl, the Sabine, the Trinity, the Brazos, the Colorado of Texas, the Nueces, the Red, the Rio Grande and the Mississippi, which drains by far the largest part of the country.

The rivers of the Pacific system are few, and with the exception of the Columbia, draining the northwestern part of the country, and the Colorado, flowing into the Gulf of California, they are all short and small. Proceeding southward from the Columbia, those worthy of mention are the Klamath, the Sacramento, the San Joaquin and the Salinas. The Colorado, formed far up in Utah, with the Green as a tributary, drains a portion of the plateau between the Rocky and the Sierra Nevada mountains.

The stream is remarkable for the gorges which it has formed in the middle and lower parts of its course.

The Great Basin system consists of a number of small streams which flow into Great Salt Lake and a few smaller lakes, or those which lose themselves in salt marshes in the desert. The Humboldt is the only important river that loses itself in the sand.

Lakes. Fully one-half of the area of Lakes Superior, Huron, Erie and Ontario belongs to the United States, and all of Lake Michigan is within her boundaries. In addition to these great bodies of water, the northern part of the Appalachian Highlands contains many lakes noted for their clear waters and beautiful scenery. Chief among these is Moosehead, in Maine; Winnipesaukee, in New Hampshire, and Chamaquam, between Vermont and New York. The northern parts of Michigan, Wisconsin and Minnesota are also studded with lakes, and in the Rocky Mountain region are found numerous lakes, some of which, like Lake Tahoe, are noted for their high altitude, others for their great depth, abundance of fish and beautiful surroundings. The Great Basin has Great Salt Lake and numerous other smaller bodies of salt water.

Scenery. For variety, beauty and grandeur, the scenery of the United States is unequalled by that of any other country. The Appalachian Highlands are noted for their mountain lakes, sparkling streams and deep gorges, through which rivers find their way to the sea. Notable among the last are the Crawford Notch, in the White Mountains, the Palisades of the Hudson, and the Delaware Water Gap. The central plain presents to view vast areas of fertile fields. The expanse of fresh water afforded by the Great Lakes is nowhere equalled and is approached only by the great lakes in the equatorial regions of Africa. The only cataract comparable with Niagara is Victoria Falls, on the Zambezi, while the Shoshone Falls, Yosemite Falls, the Falls of the Yellowstone and many others in the Rocky Mountain region are unsurpassed in beauty. The extent and grandeur of mountain scenery found in the Rocky Mountains exceed that of any other single country, the Royal Gorge, Yosemite Valley and the canyons of the Colorado and Yellowstone are features of unusual interest, and the geysers and hot springs of Yellowstone National Park have

caused that region to be termed the "World's Wonderland."

Climate

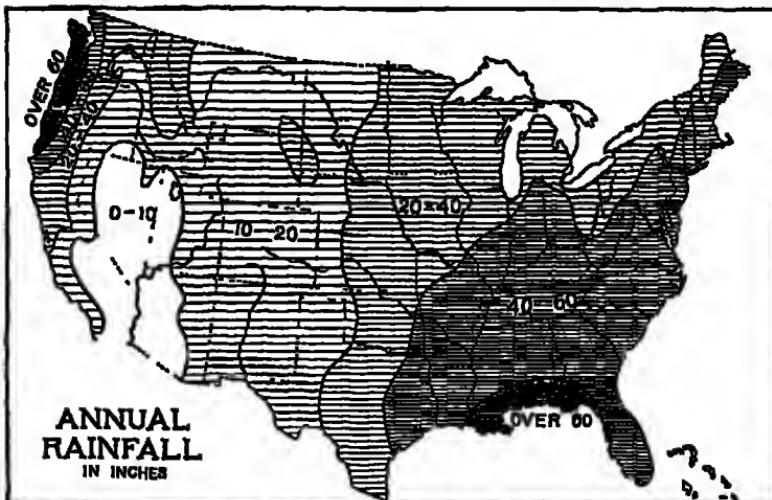
Within the boundaries of the United States may be found every range of temperate climate, and the extreme southern and southwestern sections are semitropical. The great diversity of climate is due to the wide range of latitude (24°), the position and extent of the mountain systems and differences in altitude.

Temperature. On the northern boundary, the average temperature for January is 12°, and for July, 60°. The contrast between the winter temperature on the Pacific and Atlantic coasts in the northern part of the country is very marked, the mean temperature on the Pacific coast being 41°, and on the Atlantic coast, 14°. Toward the south the average temperature rises, and it also becomes more nearly equal at the eastern and western extremities, at the 30th parallel of latitude the difference between the average temperature of the two regions for January is only 2°, and for July, only 9°, while at the extreme southern boundary the January difference is 3°, and the July difference, but 1°. The central plain is open to the passage of air currents with little or no obstruction, consequently alternating north and south winds sweep over this region, causing sudden and marked changes in temperature. The northern part of the Appalachian Highlands has a cool temperate climate. The winters are usually long and severe, and in New England, New York, some parts of Pennsylvania and northern Ohio, there is a heavy fall of snow. Toward the south the mean temperature rises, and south of Pennsylvania little snow falls, except on the highest mountains. Near the Gulf the temperature seldom falls below freezing point, and the Gulf states, with South Carolina and Georgia, verge upon a subtropical climate. The Rocky Mountain region is cooler than other regions in the same latitude, because of its high altitude. The northern part of this region, as well as the northern portion of the central plain, is subject to intensely cold waves during winter, the thermometer occasionally falling as low as 40° below zero, yet, owing to the dryness of the atmosphere, these extremes produce little discomfort. The Pacific coast has a mild climate throughout the year, with a remarkably equable temperature. At sea level the thermometer

seldom falls below freezing point, even in the northwestern part of the country, and during summer it seldom rises above 80° or 85°. In the southern part of California, the temperature in summer may be higher than this, though hot waves, even there, last but a short time.

Rainfall. The position of the mountains causes a very unequal distribution of rain. In general, all that portion of the country

western part of Utah, the western part of Arizona and the southeastern part of California, is practically rainless. This is because the winds are robbed of their moisture as they pass inland from the Sierras. The moisture brought by the winds from the Pacific is precipitated on the western slopes of these mountains. The valleys between them and the coast ranges are well watered, and along the coast through Washington,



east of the 100th meridian, crossing the middle of North and South Dakota and Nebraska, has sufficient rainfall for agriculture. In most of this region the annual precipitation varies from 40 to 60 inches, which is evenly distributed throughout the year, making this region well suited to agriculture.

A small region in the eastern part of North Carolina, and another area north of the Gulf of Mexico, have over 60 inches. The northern half of Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, most of Kansas, Missouri, Oklahoma and the eastern half of Texas have from 20 to 40 inches of rain, which assures crops, but west of this region the annual precipitation varies from 10 to 20 inches, and agriculture can be successfully prosecuted only by irrigation. However, large areas are well adapted to grazing, since there is sufficient moisture to produce a good growth of grass. The great plateau between the mountains is arid, and the southern half of it, including nearly all of Nevada, the

Oregon and the northern part of California, there is a region which receives over 60 inches of rain during the year.

Mineral Resources

The minerals of the United States constitute one of its chief sources of wealth, and in extent and variety they exceed those of any other country. With the exception of some coal and petroleum, most of the valuable minerals are found in the mountainous regions, and there the mining industry is most fully developed. The important mineral fuels are coal, petroleum and natural gas, the chief metals are iron, gold, silver, copper, lead, zinc and quicksilver.

Coal. The most extensive coal measures are found in the central part of the Appalachian highlands, including Pennsylvania and West Virginia and extending westward through the southern part of Ohio, Indiana and Illinois. There are also extensive coal measures in Missouri and Iowa, and areas

of lesser extent occur in North Dakota, Montana, Wyoming, Colorado, Utah and New Mexico. There are also valuable coal measures in Alaska. In all, the area of coal measures is about 330,000 square miles. By far the greater portion of this area contains bituminous coal, but the anthracite variety is confined within the boundaries of Pennsylvania. The United States produces more coal than any other country, the output being nearly one-third the world's output, annually as great as 600,000,000 tons.

Petroleum. Petroleum ranks next to coal in importance as a mineral fuel, and the oil industry is becoming one of the gigantic businesses of the country. The chief fields are in Pennsylvania, West Virginia, Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, Kansas, Colorado, Texas, Oklahoma, Arkansas, southern California, and Wyoming. The annual output for the entire country has been as great as 900,000,000 barrels, which exceeds the quantity produced by any other country.

Natural Gas. Natural gas occurs in usable quantities in Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Kentucky, Oklahoma, Texas, California, and a number of other states. It is of great advantage, since it furnishes the cheapest and most convenient fuel, especially for many manufacturing purposes, such as smelting iron and steel and manufacturing glass. Unfortunately much of this gas has been wasted.

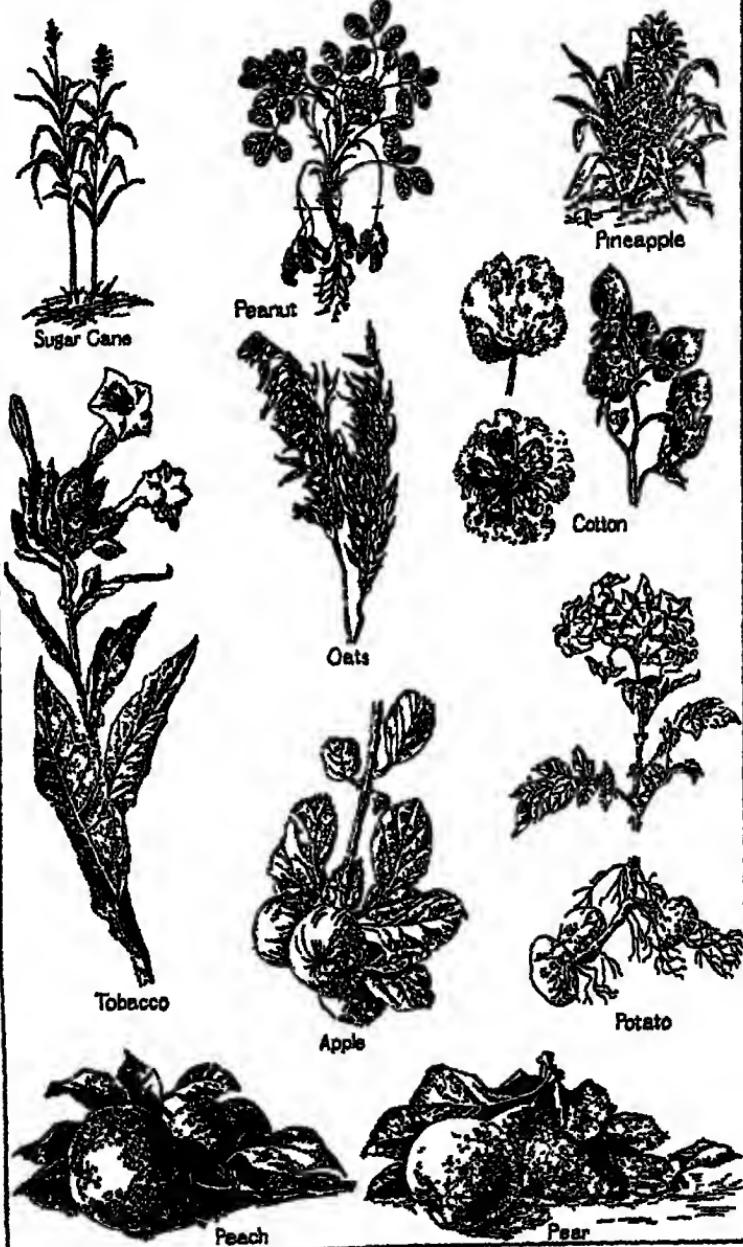
Iron. Iron ranks first in value and importance among the metals produced within the country. The great deposits of ore are in Michigan and Minnesota, around Lake Superior; in eastern New York, in Pennsylvania, in Alabama, and Georgia and in southern Missouri, in the Ozark plateau. Deposits of less importance are quite widely distributed, especially in the Rocky Mountain region. Minnesota and Michigan are the leading states in the production of iron ore, and the great centers of iron manufacture are naturally where iron ore and coal can be most cheaply brought together. These are Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois, Indiana and Alabama. The United States now leads all other nations in the production of iron and steel, her average annual output of pig iron being 15 to 40 million tons.

Gold and Silver. All the important gold and silver mines are located in the Rocky Mountain region, throughout which the ores are quite generally distributed. Present

methods of extracting the metals from the ore enable miners to work with profit at quantities of low grade ores that were formerly considered worthless, and this has increased the output of both metals. The annual production of gold, including Alaska, is about \$50,000,000, and this amount is exceeded only by the mines in South Africa. The leading states in the production of gold are Colorado, California, Nevada, Utah, South Dakota, Idaho, Arizona and New Mexico, and these also contain the chief silver mines. In production of silver, the country is surpassed only by Mexico.

Other Metals. The United States produces two-thirds of the world's supply of copper. The most important mines are located in Michigan, on the shore of Lake Superior, in Montana, and in Arizona. Lead is mined in Colorado, Idaho, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, Utah and Wisconsin, and the United States produces more than any other country. Lead and copper ores are frequently found combined with silver ore. Zinc is also found in Illinois, Kansas, Missouri, New Jersey and Wisconsin, the Kansas, Missouri, and Wisconsin mines being the largest producers. Quicksilver, is found in California, which produces about all of that substance mined within the country. The United States produces about one-half of the world's supply of aluminum, the reduction works being at Pittsburgh and Niagara Falls.

Building Stones. Limestone is very generally distributed throughout the country and is used for a great many purposes, such as the manufacture of lime and the construction of foundations for buildings and of piers for bridges; the finer varieties, such as those obtained in Indiana, are often used for the exterior of buildings, or when dressed, for trimmings in buildings constructed of other stone or brick. Granite is found in large quantities in the New England states, particularly Maine, New Hampshire and Vermont; there are also large quarries in Minnesota and other states. This is used extensively for building purposes and for tombstones. Granite is very widely distributed through the mountainous regions, and the Rocky Mountain plateau contains sufficient to supply large demands, whenever transportation facilities will warrant working the quarries. Marble is extensively quarried in Vermont and Georgia, and to some extent it is found in Tennessee and other states. The United



PLANT LIFE OF THE UNITED STATES
See also, full-page illustration, Plant Life of North America, in article North America.
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States produces more marble than any other country. There are large quarries of slate in Vermont, Pennsylvania and several other states. This stone is used for finishing interiors and for roofing. Clays of suitable quality for the manufacture of brick and tile and for pottery are widely distributed.

Miscellaneous Minerals Gypsum is found in many localities, and salt is obtained from the waters of salt springs and wells, New York and Michigan being the leading states in its production. The manufacture of salt is an important industry in these states.

Vegetation. The plant life of the United States is characteristic of that of the temperate regions. Originally fully one-third of the country was covered with forests, but in the Appalachian Highlands and the Great Lake region, many sections have been almost wholly denuded, to supply the demand for lumber. In general, the forest areas include the Appalachian Highlands, the region bordering on the south of the Great Lakes and extending westward to the eastern boundary of the valley of the Red River of the North, the region along the Gulf of Mexico, including the eastern third of Texas and most of Arkansas, and the region occupied by the Cascade and Coast ranges of mountains, extending southward from the Dominion boundary as far as the central part of California.

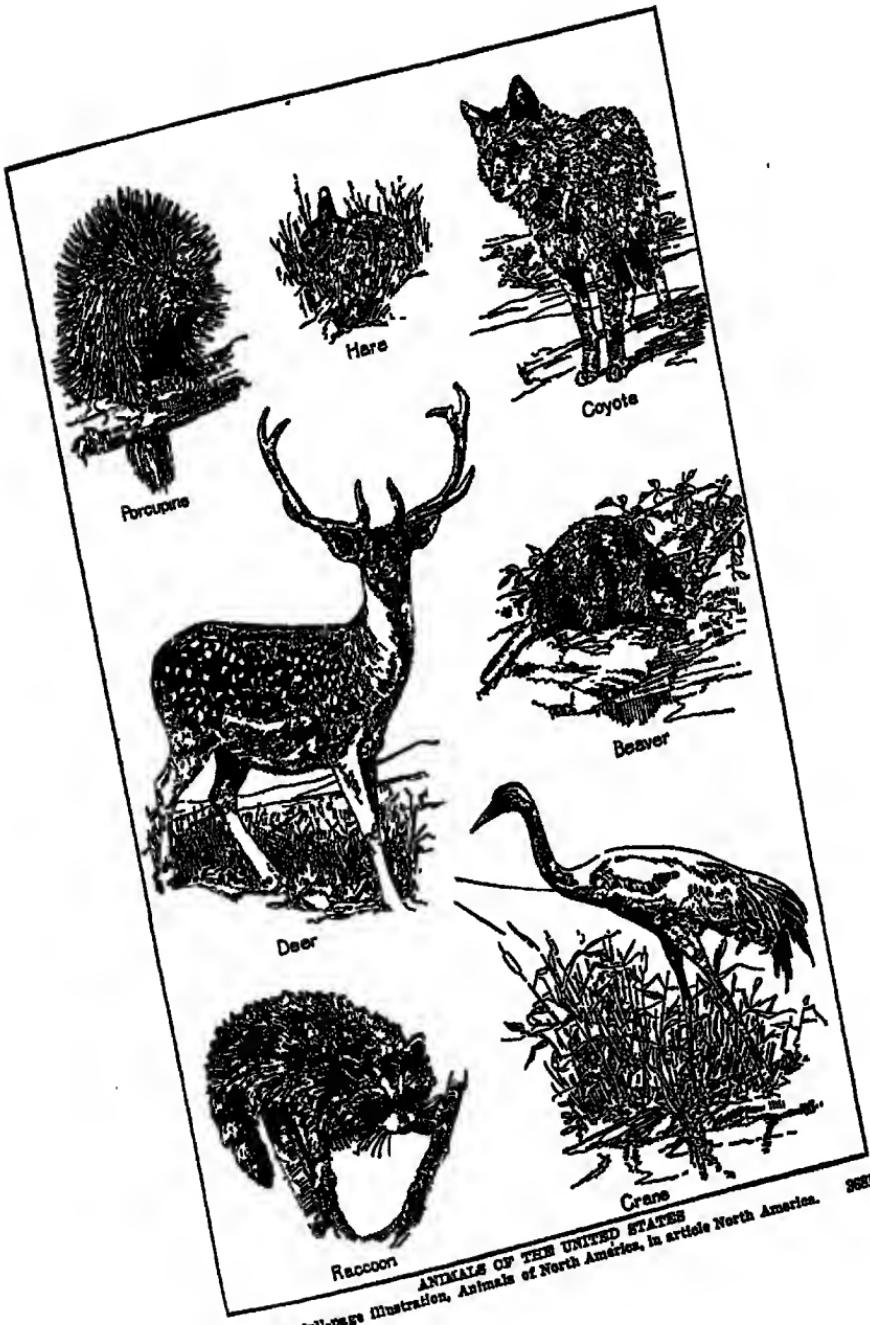
The Appalachian forests are characterized by a great variety of hard wood, such as oak, maple, ash, beech and birch. There are also many cone-bearing trees, including spruce, hemlock and the white pine, in the north, and the yellow pine and the cypress, in the south. The forests in the lake region formerly had a great abundance of white pine, which was interspersed with some hard woods, and those of the Pacific coast are notable for peculiar species of cone-bearing trees, which attain great size, particularly the Douglas fir, the redwood, the yellow cedar and the sequoia.

In addition to its forests the Appalachian Highland region and Atlantic coast plain have a great variety of smaller plants, many of which are useful, while many are desirable only because of their beautiful flowers. Among the latter are the flowering plants of the mint family, a great number of grasses and a number of shrubs. The great central plain is characterized by the growth of herbaceous plants, most of which belong to

the grass family. Many of these grasses are highly nutritious, and previous to the occupation of this region by white men they sustained vast herds of buffalo, which roamed over the prairies. Within the arid region of the Rocky Mountain plateau are found plants peculiar to desert areas. These consist almost wholly of species of sagebrush, bunch grass and buffalo grass, except in the southern portion of the plateau. Here many species of cactus are found, some of them growing to great size. The Pacific slope is characterized by vegetation peculiarly its own, containing a number of species which are tropical or semitropical in nature. Among these are several palms. The southern parts of Texas and Florida have a number of species belonging to the semitropical regions, and the vegetation of Florida very closely resembles that of the West Indies. Two plants discovered in America have become of great economic importance. These are maize, or Indian corn, and tobacco. The cultivated plants are described under their respective titles, and the areas that they occupy are more fully outlined under the subhead *Agriculture*, in the articles treating of the various states.

Animal Life

The native animals of the United States include a large number of species. Among these are 310 species of mammals, 756 species of birds, 816 species of fish, 257 species of reptiles and over 1,000 species of mollusks. Among the larger quadrupeds of the carnivorous order are bears, several varieties of wolf, the puma, or mountain lion, the wildcat, the lynx and the coyote. Among the ruminating animals, various species of deer, the buffalo, the mountain sheep and the pronghorn are the most important. Of these, the buffalo and the mountain sheep are peculiar to North America. Both are now protected in the game preserves of the national parks. There are many species of rodents, of which the beaver is the largest. This animal is also nearly extinct and is found only in the most unfringed regions of the country. The prairies abound in gophers and prairie dogs, and various species of squirrels frequent nearly all parts of the country. Among the large birds of prey are the eagle, the hawk and various species of owls. The most important water fowl include the Canada goose, the pelican and ducks. Other game birds of



See, also, full-page illustration, *ANIMALS OF THE UNITED STATES*,
Animals of North America, in article North America. 261

importance are the wild turkey (now nearly extinct), various species of grouse and pigeons. Song birds exist in large numbers and are found in all parts of the country.

Furs and Fish. It was fish that first drew the French to America, and we might say that it was furs that kept them there. Lured by the profits to be derived from buying furs from the Indians, they explored all of Canada as far west as the head of Lake Superior and much of the northern part of the interior of the United States. From those early days to the present, the fur trade has been a source of income to the inhabitants of the forest and mountainous regions of the United States, as well as to those of Canada. So diligently have the hunters pursued the most valuable fur-bearing animals—the beaver, the otter and the fox—that these have nearly disappeared from the land. But the mink, the muskrat and the skunk are still found, and they furnish the greater part of the fur marketed in the United States. Alaska is valuable for its furs, especially the fur of the seal, but the seal fisheries have been greatly restricted by the government, to prevent the extermination of these valuable animals. Fur farms have been established in some of the islands off the Alaskan coast and in Prince Edward Island, and here the valuable silver and black fox are raised in captivity.

The fisheries of the United States give employment to over 220,000 persons, and the value of the yearly output is about \$125,000,000. Cod, mackerel, lobsters and oysters are the chief products of the Atlantic coast fisheries, and salmon leads on the Pacific coast. The catch on the Great Lakes includes whitefish, lake trout and sturgeon.

Agriculture

General Survey. For more than a century the United States has been the leading agricultural country of the world, and not one-half of the agricultural resources have been developed. The mountains and large areas of land are not suited to the growing of crops, but some of these lands offer good pasture, and upon them millions of cattle, horses and sheep are raised. In 1910 less than one-half of the land was in farms, and only a little more than one-half of that in farms was under cultivation. In 1934 there were in the country about 518,267,000 acres of unappropriated and unsurveyed land (see LANDS, PUBLIC). This is an

area more than two times the area of Texas, and much of it will yield the farmer good returns for his investment and labor.

The United States has the largest acreage of cultivated land of any country in the world except possibly China, for which statistics are not obtainable. The crop acreage of the United States exceeds that of all the great countries of Europe combined, excluding Russia. Of

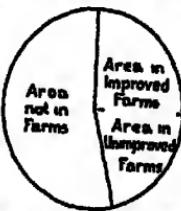
still greater significance is the acreage per capita of population, which in the United States is 3.5 per person, while in European countries it is from 1.5 to 1, and in the United Kingdom only 0.4. In other words, there is 8.4 times as much land per person in crops in the United States as in the United Kingdom, and the improved land per person is much more than this.

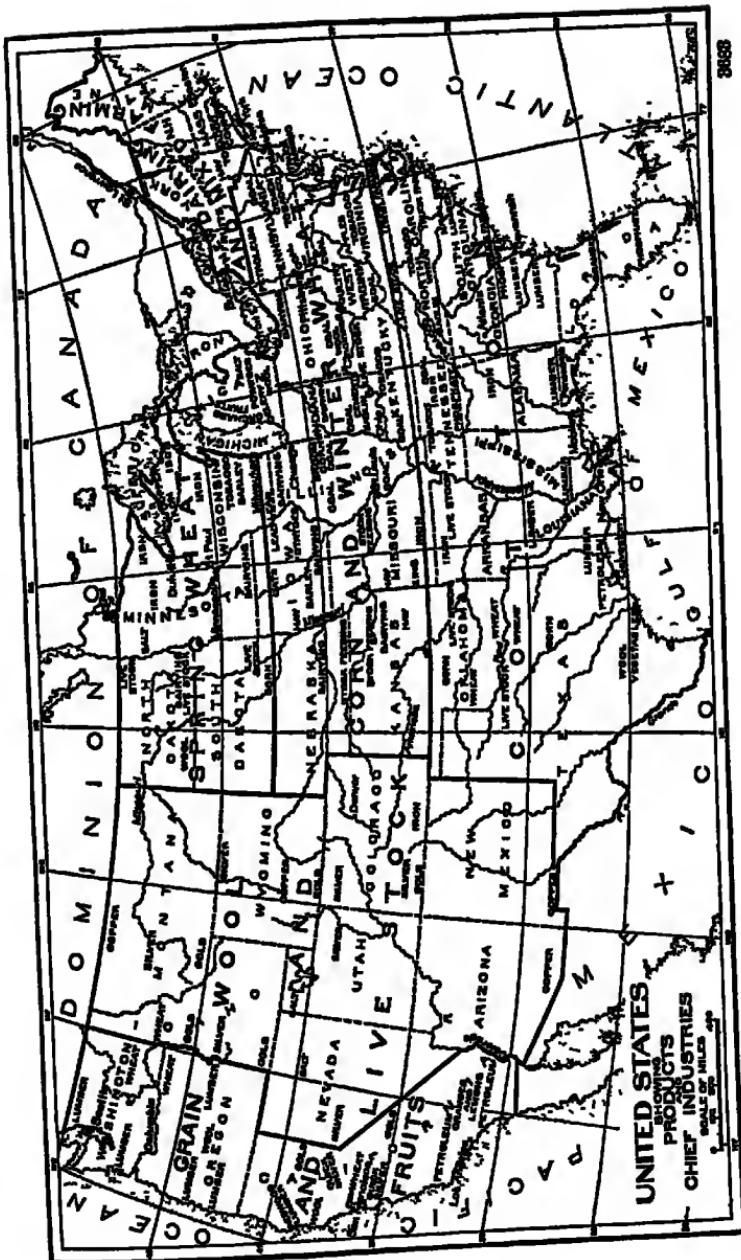
With reference to the food supply of the United States, the Department of Agriculture at Washington makes the following statement:

The United States is practically independent of the rest of the world in the food supply, except for coffee, tea, sugar, cocoas, bananas and olive oil, and the principal source of supply of these food products, except tea and olive oil, is found in the western hemisphere.

Of all the cereals except rice, the United States produces more than it consumes. The United States produces and consumes about 70 per cent of the world's corn, over 25 per cent of the world's oats, between 15 and 20 per cent of the world's barley. Of the world's rye, the United States produces only about 2 per cent and of the world's rice less than 1 per cent.

Agricultural Regions. The great agricultural regions are the prairies of the Mississippi Basin, east of the 100th meridian, the land bordering on the Gulf of Mexico, and the valleys of the Pacific slope. The Appalachian region is not so fertile as the others. However, in the valleys and on other low lands there are many valuable farms. In this part of the country the raising of cereals is not profitable, and the region cannot compete with the Mississippi Basin; hence the region is characterized by small farms, whose occupants are engaged in a variety of inter-





ests. The arid region, including the states within the Rocky Mountain plateau and the southern part of California, embraces nearly one-third of the country. Over most of this the soil is fertile, and wherever water can be supplied for irrigation, abundant crops are raised. The national government has undertaken works of gigantic proportions, for the purpose of reclaiming as much as possible of this region. The valleys of the Pacific slope, where well watered, produce abundant crops of all plants which can be raised in that climate.

The product map on page 3683 shows that agriculturally the country is divided into six regions. The words in large type indicate the chief crop or industry in each region. Those in smaller type indicate other products and industries. A careful study of this map will show that the northern New England states and New York are chiefly engaged in mixed farming and dairying, and that each of the other regions is devoted to one or more principal crops or industries, each of which is worthy of special consideration. For the development of agriculture in the country, see *Agriculture*, and for more particular accounts, see subhead *Agriculture*, under the articles treating of the different states.

Cereals. As a whole, cereals constitute the most important agricultural product of the country. The great region devoted to these crops comprises the states of the Mississippi Basin, portions of Pennsylvania and West Virginia, and portions of Oregon, Washington and California. The leading wheat-producing states are Montana, North Dakota, Kansas, Nebraska and Oklahoma. More than half the crop is winter wheat. The annual crop varies from 750,000,000 to about 850,000,000 bushels, but has reached 932,000,000 bushels. The leading corn-producing states are Illinois, Iowa, Missouri, Indiana, Nebraska and Kansas. The annual crop varies from about 2,500,000,000 bushels to 3,200,000,000 bushels. In 1935 it was 1,400,000,000 bushels. The leading states in oats production are Minnesota and Iowa. The crop amounts to about 1,200,000,000 bushels yearly. Rice is produced in Louisiana, South Carolina, Texas, Georgia, North Carolina and California. The annual crop is about 40,000,000 bushels. Considerable buckwheat is grown in some states, and some of the Northern states also produce more or

less rye; but in the production of this grain the United States is far behind some of the European countries.

Cotton and Tobacco. Cotton is the chief product of the Southern states and the one from which they derive the greatest amount of money. The annual crop has reached 16,000,000 bales, but averages 10,000,000.

The leading states in its production are Texas, Mississippi, Georgia, Alabama, South Carolina and Arkansas. Tobacco is also an important crop, and it is generally distributed over the country. The amount grown yearly is about 1,200,000,000 pounds. The leading states in tobacco production, in the order of their importance, are North Carolina, Kentucky, Virginia, Tennessee, Georgia, Pennsylvania, Wisconsin and South Carolina. A number of other states also raise considerable quantities.

Fruit. Horticulture is an important branch of agriculture, and the raising of fruit is the leading occupation in Florida, Delaware, parts of New Jersey, the western part of New York and the southern and central parts of California, while its production engages the attention of a large number of farmers in Washington, Oregon, the mountainous part of Montana and a number of other states. In Florida pineapples and oranges are the chief fruits. In California oranges, lemons, apricots, grapes, prunes and almonds, among the larger fruits, are of greatest importance, while grapes and small fruits are raised in large quantities. Grapes and peaches are grown extensively in New York, and apples and peaches are produced in New York, Michigan, Colorado, Missouri and numerous other states. Small fruits, including raspberries, blackberries and strawberries, are found in nearly all parts of the country where there is sufficient rainfall for their growth.

Other Crops. In Minnesota, Wisconsin and some other Northern states, considerable flax is grown, mostly for the seed. Sugar cane is raised in Louisiana and a few other of the Gulf states, and the sugar beet is grown in many of the states. Potatoes are raised in large quantities in Wisconsin, Minnesota and New York. Sweet potatoes are grown in Virginia, in the southern part of Illinois and in a number of the Southern states. Vegetables are grown for market in Delaware and New Jersey and in nearly all states in which large cities are located. New

York and the states on the Pacific slope are noted for their production of hops.

Livestock. Much of the arid region is well suited to grazing, and in this section of the country large herds of cattle and sheep are raised. Texas leads in the production of cattle, and Wyoming is first in the production of sheep. Some of the corn states, particularly Iowa and Illinois, are noted for their beef cattle and hogs. New York, the northern New England states, Iowa, Illinois and Wisconsin are extensively engaged in dairying, and the value of the dairy products is great. The annual production of milk in the United States has amounted to 48 billion quarts a year.

Poultry. The raising of poultry is an important branch of agricultural industry, and it engages many people in all parts of the country, though it has received less attention on the Pacific coast than in other regions. About 700,000,000 fowls are raised annually and 2,000,000,000 eggs are produced. The annual value of the poultry products is about \$1,000,000,000. The leading poultry states are Illinois, Missouri, Iowa, Ohio, Indiana, California, and Texas.

Manufacturing Industries

Causes of Development. During the early period of existence as a nation everything was made by hand, and the clothing and other necessities for the family were produced in the home. The mother was house-keeper, spinner, weaver and tailor, the father was farmer, carpenter, blacksmith and harnessmaker, and the traveling shoemaker came around once or twice a year and made shoes for the family. Gradually, these industries began to be separated. One family in the settlement made the cloth, one man did the carpenter work and another became a blacksmith. Shops were erected, and where there was water power simple machinery was installed. As the number of settlers increased, factories became more numerous and the distinction between trades more marked. Nevertheless, the growth of the manufacturing industries was slow until about 1850, and since that date, they have developed more rapidly than any other lines of industry. Now the United States is the leading manufacturing country of the world, producing more than one-third of the world's manufactured products.

The chief causes for this rapid development of the United States as a manufac-

ting nation are the country's abundant agricultural resources, its mineral resources, its extensive forests, the remarkable transportation facilities afforded, the inventive genius of the people and the opportunities for an extensive trade between the states. The extent and variety of agricultural products assure an abundance of food supplies for the people, and the methods of agriculture are such that a comparatively small proportion of the inhabitants can supply food for the entire nation and also for export to foreign lands. This leaves large numbers free to engage in other occupations, and thus enables a larger proportion of the people to engage in manufacturing industries than would be possible were the agricultural conditions such that nearly all were dependent for support upon their own efforts in tilling the soil.

The abundant supply of coal, iron and other useful metals makes the manufacture of many products convenient and comparatively cheap. This is particularly true of iron and steel and their products, while the presence of clay and various forms of building stone is of equal advantage in the construction of factories and other establishments connected directly or indirectly with manufacturing industries. The great forest areas provide an abundance of lumber and timber for all articles made of wood, hence this line of manufactures has been developed on a very large scale.

In addition to the coal for fuel, thousands of streams furnish abundant water power, and the invention of the electric motor has brought into use many power sites so far from manufacturing centers that the location of factories on them formerly was impracticable. Since electric power can be carried distances without great loss, it may operate factories hundreds of miles from its source. The perfection of the gasoline engine has greatly increased the power for propelling machinery. While not adapted to large factories this engine supplies power to many small industries.

The American people have always been noted for their mechanical ingenuity, and they have produced a great number of machines and devices which have greatly influenced, and in some cases have revolutionized, the industries of the world. Chief among these are the cotton gin, the sewing machine, the steamboat, the reaping machine,

the telegraph and the telephone. To these, many others of lesser importance might be added. Their combined effect has been to simplify and cheapen many processes of manufacturing, transportation and communication, all of which have aided in the development of manufacturing industry.

The freedom of commerce between the states is one of the greatest advantages enjoyed by the country. In no other region of the world is there such an extent of country entirely free from tariff barriers. In addition to this, the country embraces localities whose needs differ widely, consequently there is a demand for interchange of products among these sections, and these conditions have combined to build up a domestic commerce much greater than that known in any other country in the world. This has led to the development of various lines of manufacture. No other country has such extensive and numerous transportation lines, both by water and by rail, hence the carrying of commodities from one section to another is comparatively easy and cheap.

Location of Manufacturing Districts. The manufacturing districts are very unevenly distributed over the country. In general, those states east of the Mississippi River and north of the Ohio are the leading manufacturing states, and more than four-fifths of all the manufactures in the country are produced within this territory. Without this limit are a few important manufactures, and these are being rapidly developed. Among them are the iron industries of Alabama and Georgia and the cotton industries of Alabama, Georgia, North Carolina and South Carolina. Some of the large cities on the Mississippi are also important manufacturing centers. Chief among these are Saint Louis, Saint Paul and Minneapolis. On the Pacific coast, lumbering, the manufacture of furniture and some other industries are fully developed, while others are increasing in number and importance from year to year.

Leading Industries. Among the many manufactured products of the country the following are the most important. Food products, including flour and meat, iron and steel, textiles, automobiles, lumber and its allied products, leather and its finished products, metals other than iron and steel, with various allied products, and paper. To the manufacture of these commodities should be

added printing and publishing, as another major industry.

Food Products. The time was when the farmer carried his wheat to the local mill, brought home the flour, and the wife cooked all the food for the household, but that time has passed, and now much of the food consumed in rural districts as well as the cities is prepared in large establishments. In addition to flour and cured meat, canned goods, breakfast foods, biscuits and numerous other articles are turned out in large quantities of an immense annual value.

The great fruit-growing regions of California, Florida and other States have developed a vast industry in the raising and marketing of citrus and other valuable fruits. Thanks to the development of improved methods of refrigeration in transport, oranges, grapefruit, grapes, and other varieties of succulent fruits are accessible practically everywhere in the country.

Iron and Steel. The United States produces more iron and steel than any other country. At the outbreak of the World War (1914) the output of pig iron and steel in the United States was nearly equal to the combined output of Germany, France and Great Britain, the next three largest producers. The leading states in the manufacture of iron and steel products are Pennsylvania, Illinois, Ohio and Indiana. Minnesota and Michigan lead in the production of iron ore.

Textiles. New England is the great center for the manufacture of cotton goods, and Massachusetts is the leading state in this industry. Outside of New England, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia and Alabama have established extensive cotton mills. In the output of her cotton goods, the United States is second only to Great Britain. Next in importance to the manufacture of cotton goods is the manufacture of woolens, including carpets and hats. Massachusetts, Pennsylvania and Rhode Island are the states in which this industry is principally located, Philadelphia being one of the greatest centers of carpet manufacture in the world. In the manufacture of silk goods the United States is the leading nation, followed by France. The great centers of the industry are in New Jersey and Pennsylvania. Extensive factories for the production of knit goods are also found throughout the New England and North Atlantic states.

Lumber The lumbering industries naturally center in those states containing extensive forest areas. It is now largest in Oregon and Washington.

Leather Pennsylvania ranks first in the tanning and finishing of leather, while Massachusetts is the leading state in the production of boots and shoes. Perhaps in no other industry is the effect of American invention and perfection of organization better seen than in the manufacture of boots and shoes. Owing to the invention of a number of ingenious machines, this industry has been highly organized, and the United States produces more boots and shoes than any other country.

Paper In the manufacture of paper the United States also leads the world. Much of this product is now made from wood pulp, which is generally manufactured in the states that have large supplies of suitable timber for this purpose. The annual output of paper and wood pulp products is about 5,000,000 tons.

Automobiles Although it is one of the youngest industries in the country, the manufacture of automobiles has reached third place among the manufacturing industries. In 1929, the best year of the industry, 5,358,414 automobiles and trucks were made, the value of all automobiles owned in the country was about \$3,000,000,000, and of motor trucks about \$600,000,000. Registrations numbered over 28,500,000.

The leading states in the industry are Michigan, Ohio, Wisconsin and New York.

Other Industries Connecticut leads in the manufacture of small articles, such as needles, pins, buttons, clocks, and various kinds of hardware. The great watch factories of the country are at Waltham, Mass., and Elgin, Ill. The manufacture of electrical apparatus and appliances is extensive and still on the increase. Before the World War the United States depended upon Germany for most of its chemicals and dyestuffs, but the war prevented the exportation of these products from Germany, and this condition stimulated manufacturing chemists to supply the market with American-made goods. The war also caused a great advance in shipbuilding, placing the country second only to Great Britain in this industry. In the manufacture of agricultural implements and machinery the United States surpasses every other nation. This industry is most extensive in

Illinois, Chicago being the leading center. Other states in which it is large are Ohio, New York and Wisconsin. The yearly output is about \$600,000,000. Annual production of clay, glass and stone products is over \$1,000,000,000. Besides these larger industries there are many smaller ones, considered as miscellaneous, whose annual output exceeds \$1,000,000,000 in value, while the hand trades, or those occupations in which the articles are produced by the use of hand tools, have an annual output exceeding \$1,184,000,000.

Transportation and Communication

Waterways The United States has over 12,000 miles of seacoast and more than 18,000 miles of inland waterways. Formerly the inland waterways were of the greatest importance, since by their means the interior of the country found an outlet to the sea. The most important systems of these waterways are those of the Mississippi River and tributaries and the Great Lakes. Since the construction of railways, the river systems have become less valuable, but the completion of canals, by means of which steamers of deep draft can pass from the lakes to the ocean through the Saint Lawrence River has rendered this waterway of great importance. In connection with it, the construction of the Erie Canal, early in the nineteenth century, opened the way for the transportation of commodities between the Atlantic seaboard and the interior. The important canals are described under their titles.

Railroads. The first railroads of importance in the United States were constructed in 1830 and 1832, and at the close of the latter year there were 28 miles of railway in the country. In 1835 the mileage was over 250,000 or more than that of the entire continent of Europe. It is nearly one-third of all the mileage of the world. Naturally the older states contain the larger number of lines, the portion of the country east of the Mississippi River is fully supplied with railways, so that nearly all towns have convenient means of communication. In the Appalachian region, the longest lines extend approximately north and south; west of these mountains the general trend of the railways is east and west; in the Mississippi Valley there are a number of north and south lines, connecting Chicago and Saint

Louis with important commercial ports on the Gulf of Mexico. Some of these lines extend into Mexico.

Six transcontinental lines now extend to the Pacific coast, and the Canadian Pacific, the Canadian Northern and the Grand Trunk Pacific, only a short distance north of the international boundary line, also render some service to the inhabitants of the northern part of the country. Electric railways connect many towns situated within a few miles of one another, and these systems are being extended to the rural districts, especially in the eastern part of the country and in the southern part of California. On the whole, the country is well supplied with water and rail transportation.

Roads. The development of railways and their importance in the industrial systems of the country has caused neglect of wagon roads, and in the construction of these important means of transportation the United States is far behind European countries. In most states the roads are poor, and in some states, during certain seasons of the year, they are well-nigh impassable.

In 1893 the United States Department of Agriculture inaugurated the Good Roads Movement, and since that time the national government has given some assistance in improving the public highways. In 1914 Congress appropriated \$25,000,000 for the construction and improvement of roads, and in 1918 this amount was increased to \$266,750,000, to be spent within the next three years. This money was divided among the states on condition that each state must appropriate as much money as it received from the national government. Federal cooperation has been continued since on a generous scale, aided by state appropriations.

Air Service. There are about twenty-five companies of major importance engaged in transport service. They operate about 4,500 planes, and cover nearly 50,000,000 miles a year. Passengers carried now number more than 250,000 yearly, mail carried has reached a total of more than 8,000,000 pounds a year, and express, more than 3,000,000 pounds. Passenger planes are increasing in capacity. The continent is spanned between daylight and darkness.

Commerce

Domestic Commerce. The domestic commerce of the United States is larger than that of any other country and far exceeds

its trade with foreign nations. The widely separated sections of the country, differing from one another in climate, soil and products, create a great demand in each section for the products of the others, and in the supplying of this demand an extensive commerce has sprung up. The amount of this trade cannot be obtained, since no record is kept of the shipments of merchandise that are not entered at customhouses; but that it is very great is evident to all who are conversant with commercial systems.

Foreign Commerce. Before 1915, in its foreign commerce the United States was exceeded by Great Britain and Germany and ranked third among the great nations. But the World War created such a demand for American products that it advanced to first place. In 1920 it occupied first place, with imports and exports exceeding 13 billion dollars. This immense total gradually decreased until under normal conditions the totals were between 3 billion and 5 billion dollars. Under normal conditions the exports are divided among various products as follows: Agricultural products, 62 per cent; manufactures, 30 per cent; forest products, 4 per cent; mining products, 3 per cent. The imports have the following apportionment: Raw material, 38 per cent; food and domestic animals, 21 per cent; manufactures, 16.79 per cent; luxuries, 14.47 per cent.

Most of the foreign trade was carried on with the European nations in the following order of importance: The United Kingdom, Germany, France, Netherlands, Belgium. Italy and Russia also have a considerable share. Of Asiatic nations Japan has the first place and China the second. Europe takes about three-fourths of the exports and supplies one-half of the imports. Of the other foreign nations, Canada is the most important in North America, and Brazil, Argentina and Chile lead in South America. The great seaports engaged in European trade are New York, Boston, Philadelphia and Baltimore, while those engaged in trade with China, Japan and the Philippines are San Francisco, Seattle and Tacoma. The Panama Canal has also brought the Atlantic ports much nearer these far-eastern countries.

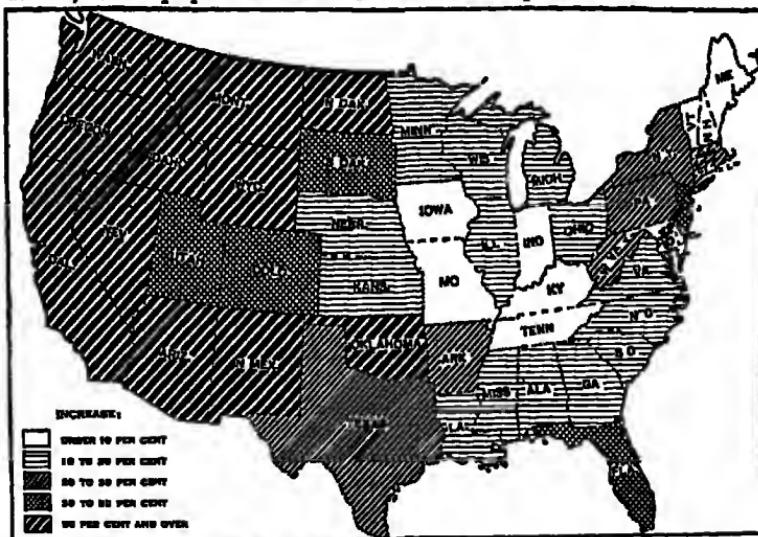
While American products are found in all countries of the world, the foreign commerce of the United States has until recently been crippled, from the fact that nearly

all of it is carried in the ships of other nations, American vessels being engaged almost entirely in the coastwise trade. During the World War the number of American merchant ships was greatly increased, and most of the new ships were engaged in foreign trade, placing the country for a few years approximately in the position it held before the Civil War.

The People

Colonial Period. During the Colonial Period settlements were made by English, Scotch, Irish, Swedes, Dutch, French and Germans, but the people from the British

colonies, by their force of character and superior education they impressed their ideals upon the others, and at the beginning of the Revolutionary War the 2,000,000 or more inhabitants of the English colonies were firmly united. Moreover, during this century and a half of their existence the political ideas of the colonies were developed and established so firmly that there was little danger of their being changed by immigration in the years that followed, and the country entered upon its national existence with a population firmly united as to nationality and social and political ideas.



MAP CLASSIFYING STATES WITH RESPECT TO THE PERCENTAGE OF INCREASE OF POPULATION BETWEEN TWELFTH AND FOURTEENTH CENSUSES

Isles far outnumbered all others. With the exception of the Germans, about 100,000 of whom settled in Pennsylvania, the other nationalities in time blended with the English, so that in language, customs, government and commercial methods the colonies were thoroughly Anglo-Saxon.

Many of the first settlers were people of exceptional character and ability, who were driven to the New World by evil or religious persecution. This applies to the Quakers and Germans in Pennsylvania and the Huguenots of South Carolina, as well as to the Puritans of New England. Although these people were fewer in number than those who came to better their condi-

Increase in Population. The first national census was taken in 1790. At that time the United States contained in round numbers 4,000,000 inhabitants. About one-fifth of these, or 750,000, were negroes. The growth in population by decades is shown in the table on page 3690.

The greatest growth has been in the central and western states, where the increase has been unusually large. This is due to the fertility of the soil in the Mississippi Valley and the opportunities and advantages offered by a new country. These attracted large numbers of immigrants.

Movement Westward. In 1790 the center of population was 23 miles east of Baltimore.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA 3690 UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

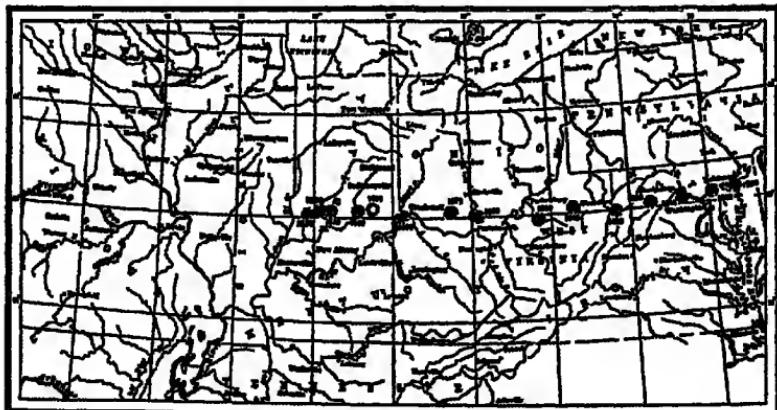
The center moved westward with varying degrees of rapidity, as indicated by the stars on the map printed on this page. The

CENSUS	POPULATION, excluding Alaska	INCREASE	
		NUMBER	PER CENT
1820	123,775,048	17,064,459	14.1
1830	125,710,290	19,728,354	14.9
1840	81,972,559	15,977,631	21.0
1850	75,592,099	12,946,458	20.7
1860	52,599,200	12,459,497	24.9
1870	56,196,700	11,697,410	20.1
1880	59,599,971	7,118,050	20.9
1890	51,448,891	9,261,445	22.6
1900	23,191,970	5,192,431	25.9
1910	17,050,499	4,903,433	29.7
1920	12,865,050	3,897,567	29.5
1930	9,999,459	3,939,570	29.1
1940	7,929,581	1,981,328	25.4
1950	5,308,493	1,978,233	55.1
1960	3,900,914		

center of population has varied slightly from time to time from an east and west line, and during the period in which the states in the Mississippi Valley and farther west were being settled it moved forward more rapidly than it did during the decades between 1900 and 1930. During this latter

Island, with 644.8 people to the square mile, was the most densely populated, Massachusetts, with 523.6, was second, New Jersey had 528, Connecticut, 333, New York, 264, Pennsylvania, 215, Maryland, 164, Ohio, 163, Delaware, 121, Illinois, 136. All other states had fewer than 100 people to the square mile. Wyoming, with 2.8, and Nevada, with 0.8, were the least densely populated. The percentage of increase from 1900 to 1930 is shown in the accompanying map, taken from a *Bulletin* of the Bureau of the Census. By this it will be seen that the movement of population has been to the states west of the Mississippi. The increase from 1920 to 1930 was greatest in California—65.7 per cent. Next was Florida—51.6 per cent, followed by Michigan, with 32 per cent, Arizona 30 per cent, New Jersey 28.1 per cent, Texas 24.9 per cent, North Carolina 23.9 per cent, Oregon 21.8 per cent.

Growth of Cities Since the organization of the government, the population of cities and towns has increased far more, proportionately, than the population of the country at large, and this proportion has



MOVEMENT OF THE CENTER OF POPULATION

period the center of population advanced westward about 70 miles, being in 1930 about 3 miles northeast of Linton, Ind.

Density Had the population been evenly distributed over the country, excluding Alaska and Hawaii, in 1930, there would have been forty-one people to the square mile. The average density was 41.3. Rhode

been constantly increasing. In 1790, 3.4 people out of every 100 lived in cities of 8,000 or more inhabitants. In 1840 this proportion had increased to 8.5 per 100. In 1850, one-eighth of the people dwelt in cities of 8,000 or over, in 1890, over one-fourth, and by 1930, over one-third. This rapid growth of cities is due, principally, to the

establishment of the factory system, necessitating the bringing together of a large number of operatives, to increased facilities of transportation, to immigration, and to a desire for better schools.

The following table includes the seventy largest cities of the United States. The population statistics are government census returns for 1930.

New York, N.Y.	6,850,446
Chicago, Ill.	3,378,422
Philadelphia, Pa.	1,950,361
Detroit, Mich.	1,845,563
Los Angeles, Calif.	1,223,042
Cleveland, Ohio	900,429
St. Louis, Mo.	821,980
Baltimore, Md.	804,374
Boston, Mass.	721,122
Pittsburgh, Pa.	689,517
San Francisco, Calif.	584,824
Milwaukee, Wis.	575,549
Buffalo, N.Y.	573,072
Washington, D.C.	425,822
Minneapolis, Minn.	424,235
New Orleans, La.	422,782
Cincinnati, Ohio	421,180
Newark, N.J.	412,537
Kansas City, Mo.	322,742
Seattle, Wash.	265,332
Indianapolis, Ind.	234,131
Rochester, N.Y.	224,122
Jersey City, N.J.	218,718
Louisville, Ky.	207,746
Portland, Oregon	201,218
Houston, Texas	202,352
Toledo, Ohio	200,712
Columbus, Ohio	200,524
Denver, Colorado	207,361
Oakland, Calif.	204,962
St. Paul, Minn.	211,302
Atlanta, Ga.	210,386
Dallas, Texas	200,472
Birmingham, Ala.	212,376
Akron, Ohio	206,048
Memphis, Tenn.	212,143
Providence, R.I.	212,851
San Antonio, Texas	211,842
Omaha, Neb.	214,605
Syracuse, N.Y.	202,318
Dayton, Ohio	200,932
Worcester, Mass.	192,211
Oklahoma City, Okla.	188,238
Richmond, Va.	182,889
Youngstown, Ohio	170,902
Grand Rapids, Mich.	188,552
Hartford, Conn.	184,072
Fort Worth, Tex.	182,447
New Haven, Conn.	183,856
Flint, Mich.	186,492
Nashville, Tenn.	182,888
Springfield, Mass.	142,900
San Diego, Calif.	147,922
Bridgeport, Conn.	142,712
Scranton, Pa.	148,488
Des Moines, Iowa	142,529
Long Beach, Calif.	142,923
Tulsa, Okla.	141,865
Salt Lake City, Utah	140,887

Paterson, N.J.	138,512
Yonkers, N.Y.	134,646
Norfolk, Va.	125,712
Jacksonville, Fla.	123,843
Albany, N.Y.	127,412
Trenton, N.J.	123,253
Kansas City, Kans.	121,287
Chattanooga, Tenn.	119,792
Camden, N.J.	118,700
Erie, Pa.	118,987
Spokane, Wash.	118,514
"	"

Immigration Previous to 1800 no statistics of immigration were kept. Good authorities, however, estimate that at the beginning of the Revolutionary War about one-fifth of the people were immigrants and that from 1790 to 1800 about 5,000 people entered the country each year. During the first half-century following the adoption of the Constitution, immigration was small, and previous to the Civil War, only about 1,000,000 foreigners had settled in the United States. After 1870 immigrants began to come by the thousands, and by 1910 they had added nearly 30,000,000 to the population. Previous to 1895 most of the immigrants were from the northern countries of Europe, the majority coming from the British Isles, Germany, Norway and Sweden. Most of them settled in the new states, in the northern part of the Mississippi Valley, where their descendants now constitute a thrifty, law-abiding and industrious people. After that time, however, the character of immigration almost entirely changed, and by far the larger proportion of immigrants came from Italy and Austria-Hungary, with smaller numbers from other countries of southern Europe. Since 1927 immigrants are admitted only to the number of 150,000 per year.

In 1850 only 9.7 people in 100 among the population were foreign born, while in 1930 the proportion exceeded 12. For the year ending June 30, 1910, 1,041,570 aliens entered the United States, and each year thereafter until 1915 over 1,000,000 immigrants were received each year. Between 1820 and 1914 about 32,000,000 aliens entered the country, exclusive of temporary arrivals, a number equal to almost one-third the entire population. Immigration was greatly reduced during the World War. In 1914, the number of immigrants was 1,218,480; in 1915 it was 326,700, and for 1916 and 1917 the number was less than 300,000, because of the war which was being waged in Europe. In 1917 Congress passed a law restricting

immigration to those who could read at least one language. For a fuller account of the subject, see the article IMMIGRATION.

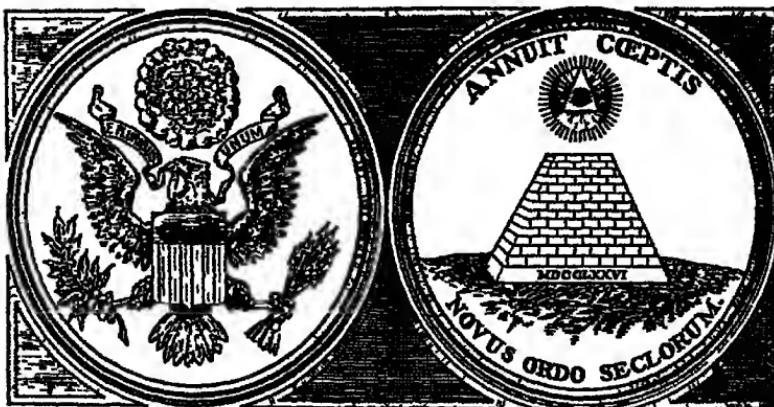
Color. In 1790 the negroes constituted one-fifth of the population and in 1910, less than one-ninth; that is, of the entire population, 9,827,763 were negroes. In 1930 the number had increased to 11,891,000, according to the census of the United States government.

The great majority of negroes are found in the states south of the Ohio River, including Texas and Arkansas, though bordering states contain large numbers. In South Carolina and Mississippi, the negroes outnumber the white population. In 1930 there were also 74,954 Chinese and 138,634 Japanese in the United States. The greater pro-

Germany, Switzerland, Scotland, Holland, France and England. In large cities and in some rural communities immigrants settle in communities and for years maintain their language and many of the customs of the Old World, but in most instances the children educated in the public schools become Americanized.

With very few exceptions, English is the language spoken throughout the country, and everywhere it is the official language of the land. After the United States entered the World War many states prohibited the teaching of any living language, except English, in the public schools.

In 1900 the population was 76,303,337, not reckoning the outlying possessions. In 1920 it was 105,710,620. In 1930 the census report



GREAT SEAL OF THE UNITED STATES (SEE PAGE 3241)

portion of oriental immigrants are confined to the Pacific states. There were also in the country 832,397 Indians, most of whom were on reservations. The Indian population is gradually decreasing, as is also the Chinese. The number of Japanese increased more than 25 per cent in ten years, mostly in California and Washington.

Present Character. The population of the United States comprises representatives of nearly every race and nation, and the large cities are probably more cosmopolitan than any others in the world. Because of this characteristic, the percentage of illiteracy in the country is higher than it is in some of the European countries, namely,

for continental United States was 122,750,046, and for the outlying possessions, 14,233,389. The population of each of these possessions is given in the respective articles describing them.

Government

General Features. The national government began with the Continental Congress, which, after the Declaration of Independence, framed the first national constitution, known as the Articles of Confederation. This instrument, however, was soon found to be inadequate to the needs of the country and in 1787 the Constitution, establishing the present government, was framed. As organized under the Constitution, the govern-

ment of the United States is a federal republic, in which the states are self-governing, each having a republican form of government.

The powers of the national government are defined by the Constitution, and all powers not specifically delegated to the United States are reserved to the states and to the people. However, the states are prohibited from the exercise of certain powers, among which are making treaties with foreign nations, declaring war and coining money. There are other powers, also, which they are forbidden to exercise except by permission of the national government.

The national government is organized in three coordinate departments, legislative, executive and judicial.

While these departments, within certain limits, are independent of one another, each is so related to the others as to form, with them, an organic whole. For instance, laws must originate in the legislative department, but the president has the power of veto, and the judicial department can render any law null and void by declaring it unconstitutional. The legislative department also has power to impeach and try United States officers, including the head of the executive department, and the president cannot appoint to certain offices except by the advice and consent of the Senate. The relation of these departments to each other is shown in the diagram accompanying the article Civil Government, and the government of each state is described in the article on that state.

Legislative Department. The legislative department consists of a Congress, comprising a House of Representatives and a Senate. The House of Representatives consists of members apportioned among the states according to population, the apportionment being made every ten years. Each state has at least one Representative, whatever its population. The members are chosen at a general election, on the first Tuesday after the first Monday of November, in even-numbered years, and they hold their offices for two years. The apportionment in 1911 was one Representative to every 211,480 inhabitants, and the number of Representatives according to this apportionment was 435. The House of Representatives elects one of its members as the presiding officer, entitled speaker, for a term of two years. All bills for raising revenue must originate in this

branch of Congress, but in passing bills, the two houses must agree, and they have equal power to reject measures.

The Senate is composed of two members from each state, formerly chosen by the state legislature, but since the adoption of the Seventeenth Amendment, elected by popular vote for a term of six years. Members are so elected that the terms of one-third of the Senators expire every two years. The presiding officer is the Vice-President of the United States. The Senate has sole power to try cases of impeachment and to ratify treaties with foreign nations.

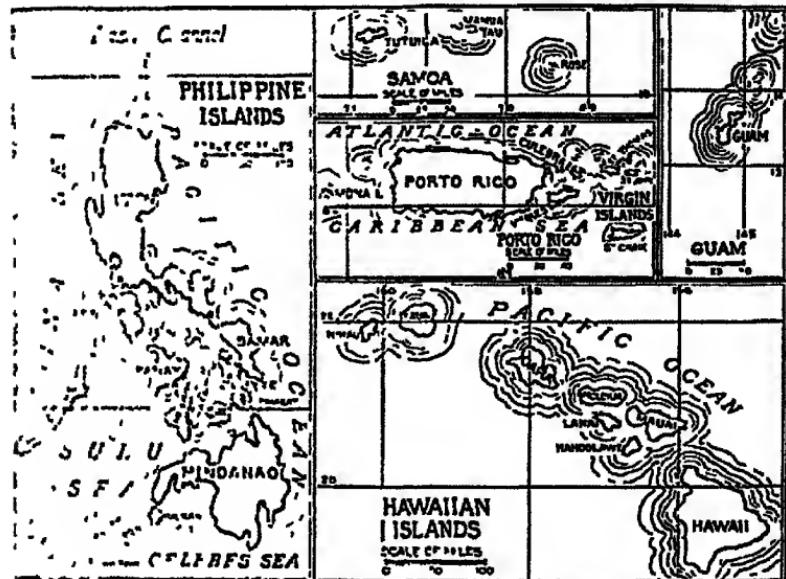
Executive Department. The executive department consists of the President, the Vice-President and such other officers as the President may select or as may be provided for by law. The President and the Vice-President are chosen by electors for a term of four years. In order that this branch of the government might be efficiently administered, Washington established, in 1789, the following departments: State, War and Navy, Treasury and Postoffice. Since then the following departments have been added: Interior, 1849; Justice, 1870; Agriculture, 1889; and Commerce and Labor, 1903, which in 1913 was divided into the Department of Commerce and the Department of Labor. With the exception of the Department of Justice and the Postoffice Department, the officers at the heads of the departments are styled Secretaries. The Attorney-General is the head of the Department of Justice, and the Postmaster-General is at the head of the Postoffice Department. These heads of the department, taken collectively, constitute the President's Cabinet. Each of the departments is explained under its title. The heads of departments and other important officers are appointed by the President, with the advice and consent of the Senate, while many minor officers are appointed by the President without consulting the Senate, or by the heads of departments.

The President is commander in chief of the army and navy, has the power to call Congress in special session, when necessary, and can veto any bill passed by Congress, though such a bill may be passed over his veto by a two-thirds vote of the members of each house. It is the President's duty to send a message to Congress at the beginning of each session, setting forth the condition of the country and recommending such legislation as he

... His power to
... give to persons who
... have done their duty and it
... will be done are exerted
... in every part of its depen-

77. Judicial Department The Judicial Department of the Supreme Court consists of the Supreme Court from time to time and the Court of Appeal. At present the Supreme Court consists of the Supreme Court and the Court of Appeal, 103

missioners appointed by the United States, and the inhabitants were given an active part in the management of government affairs as rapidly as they became competent. Now both of these possessions have their own legislatures. For a detailed statement, the reader is referred to the subhead *Government* in the articles describing each of these possessions. Alaska and Hawaii are organized territories. The Virgin Islands, acquired by purchase from Denmark in 1917, are under an appointed governor.



"OF THE UNITED STATES NOT ON THE AMERICAN CONTINENT

In addition to a Court of Claims, a Court of Appeals for the District of Columbia, the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia, the territorial court, and the circuit court. The circuit court and jurisdiction of these courts are as follows:

Out-lying Possessions. The acquisition of the Philippines and Porto Rico in 1898 added to the United States a new group of possessions. The inhabitants of these territories became citizens, and it was the responsibility of the government to secure their welfare and happiness.

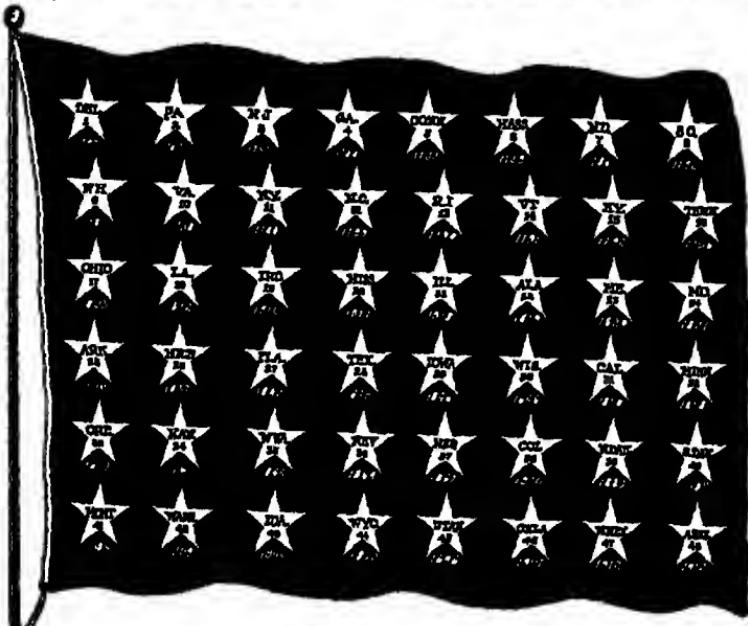
State Governments The government of each state is based upon a constitution, and in the main follows the plan of the national government. Nearly all states have a legislature of two branches, a Senate and a House of representatives. In many the members of the senate are elected for a longer term than the members of the house, and in some states the terms of only a part of the senators expire at one time, so that one-half of them are chosen at each general election. The executive officers of the state are usually a governor, a lieutenant-governor, a secretary of state, a treasurer, an attorney-general and a superintendent or commissioner.

of public instruction. To these some states add an auditor of public accounts and a comptroller.

The state government deals with all affairs pertaining to the interests of the state, such as laws governing marriage and divorce, the obligation of contracts, the settling of estates, the transference of real property and the regulation of loans, interests and mortgages.

In the matter of courts there is a greater divergence of plan. Almost every state has a supreme court, which has a limited original jurisdiction, and to which cases of certain importance may be appealed from the lower courts. Below this are circuit courts, which usually have jurisdiction over several com-

township officers are chosen at an annual town meeting, in which all voters have a right to participate. All the public business of the local community is in the hands of these town officers. In the county system the township is not recognized, the county being the principal unit of government. The only subdivision is the parish. Under this plan nearly all matters of public interest are looked after by county officers, who are chosen at regular elections. In most states these are known as county commissioners, or county supervisors. Between New England and Virginia a third form of local government grew up. It was the outgrowth of the two systems described above and may be



THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE FLAG

ties, and in some states there are county courts. Almost all the states have county probate courts for the settlement of estates.

Local Government. The early colonists established two forms of local government, the township form in New England, and the county form in Virginia and other southern colonies. These shaped the local government in most of the original states. Under the former plan the township is the unit, and the

called the *assized*, or township-county, system. Under this scheme certain minor duties devolve upon township officers, while more important local duties rest with county officers. The officers of the county include commissioners, representing the different towns of the county, an auditor, a register of deeds, a treasurer and a superintendent of schools, or school commissioner. Other officers are sometimes added. This system, on the whole,

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA 376 UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

STATE	POP. IN 1930	CAPITAL	TOTAL AREA IN SQ MILES	RANK	ADMITTED TO THE UNION	POPULATION IN 1930
Alabama	3,094,234	Montgomery	51,034	24	1910	2,616,214
Alaska	61,076	Anchorage	113,076	3	1912	475,772
Arizona	1,135,135	Phoenix	117,135	26	1912	1,034,492
Arkansas	1,162,297	Little Rock	174,297	2	1836	5,677,251
California	6,914,914	Sacramento	103,914	7	1950	1,073,791
Colorado	4,963	Boulder	4,963	46	*	1,008,403
Connecticut	2,770	Hartford	2,770	47	*	234,390
Dakota, North	24,076	Troutdale	24,076	21	1845	1,474,211
Dakota, South	20,265	Charleston	20,265	20	*	2,908,806
Delaware	33,659	Dover	33,659	12	1900	445,032
Florida	56,663	Tallahassee	56,663	21	1845	7,630,654
Georgia	26,324	Atlanta	26,324	37	1910	3,236,503
Hawaii	26,147	Honolulu	26,147	21	1910	2,470,429
Idaho	82,153	Boise	82,153	11	1861	1,340,999
Illinois	40,518	Springfield	40,518	26	1782	2,614,469
Indiana	49,806	Indianapolis	49,806	30	1912	2,101,593
Iowa	21,010	Des Moines	21,010	24	1842	707,423
Kansas	12,327	Topeka	12,327	41	*	1,631,126
Louisiana	8,266	Baton Rouge	8,266	44	*	4,210,614
Maine	37,940	Orrington	37,940	22	1817	4,842,725
Maryland	51,652	Annapolis	51,652	11	1828	2,963,933
Massachusetts	40,805	Boston	40,805	31	1817	2,009,821
Michigan	69,420	Lansing	69,420	15	1831	5,029,707
Minnesota	146,997	St Paul	146,997	3	1849	837,906
Mississippi	77,120	Jackson	77,120	11	1867	1,377,963
Missouri	110,670	Jefferson City	110,670	6	1821	91,053
Montana	0,711	Helena	0,711	43	*	403,293
Nebraska	8,221	Lincoln	8,221	45	*	4,011,121
Nevada	122,011	Carson City	122,011	4	1912	421,117
New Hampshire	49,201	Concord	49,201	29	*	12,535,066
New Jersey	52,126	Trenton	52,126	27	*	3,170,276
New Mexico	70,537	Albuquerque	70,537	16	1850	680,945
New York	41,610	Albany	41,610	25	1803	6,616,697
Pennsylvania	70,047	Harrisburg	70,047	17	1803	2,206,010
Rhode Island	96,670	Providence	96,670	0	1799	973,756
South Carolina	45,126	Charleston	45,126	12	*	9,011,210
Tennessee	1,245	Nashville	1,245	45	*	657,497
Vermont	10,665	Montpelier	10,665	39	*	1,735,725
Virginia	77,815	Richmond	77,815	11	1802	692,819
Washington	42,029	Seattle	42,029	21	1798	2,616,816
West Virginia	265,606	Morgantown	265,606	1	1915	5,824,715
Wisconsin	51,990	Milwaukee	51,990	10	1846	507,817
Wyoming	0,561	Cheyenne	0,561	42	1791	279,611
X. X.	42,727	Portland	42,727	33	*	2,421,851
Z. Z.	67,127	Portland	67,127	19	1849	1,803,296
Alabama	21,170	Montgomery	21,170	40	1901	1,729,203
Alaska	70,000	Juneau	70,000	25	1912	2,920,009
Hawaii	97,511	Honolulu	97,511	4	1910	225,663

territory or another of the others, and the territories of local government. It consists all of the 11 territories which have been created out of interest in the public domain. It is not a territory, but it is not a state either. It is a territory which has no representation in Congress, but it has a territorial government which has the power of the state. It is a territory for some more

densely populated than were subdivided, and the subdivisions were in time admitted into the Union and became states. Under a territorial government the governor and territorial judges are appointed by the President with the advice and consent of the Senate; otherwise the territory administers its local affairs, the same as does a state, electing a legislature which enacts laws to meet the needs of its inhabitants. In 1912 Alaska and Hawaii were territories.

Finance The Constitution gives Congress power to levy and collect direct taxes, duties on imported goods and excise taxes. Direct taxation soon proved to be unpopular.



AMERICA AT THE TIME OF THE REVOLUTION

ular, and except in extreme cases, such as war, rebellion and famine, was rarely adopted until 1913, when an income tax law was passed. Most of the government's revenue, however, until 1920 was derived from import duties and excise taxes on spirituous liquors, tobacco and other articles of manufacture, particularly luxuries. In that year the nation lost its liquor revenue for 13 years through the prohibition amendment. In 1917 taxes were levied on many articles not ordinarily taxed, because of the expenses incurred on account of the World War.

The income is ample for the usual needs of the government. Loans are occasionally obtained through the sale of bonds. During the World War five such loans were made, aggregating \$19,100,000,000. Four of them were designated as Liberty Loans, and the fifth as the Victory Loan. All were over-subscribed. United States bonds are usually payable after a long period, and while the interest is low, the permanency of the investment and the perfect security offered

by the government make them very desirable to capitalists.

The most important items of expenditure are pensions, the postoffice, the army, the navy and the interest on the public debt.

Political Divisions. Within the United States proper there are 48 states and 1 federal district. The external possessions consist of the territories of Alaska and Hawaii, Guam, the Philippines, Tutuila, Porto Rico, the Virgin Islands, formerly the Danish West Indies, and a few other small islands. At the adoption of the Constitution there were thirteen organized states, and these are known as the Original States. The first new state admitted was Vermont, in 1791, and the last were New Mexico and Arizona, which came into the Union in 1912. The only existing possessions are described under their titles. The table on page 3696 includes only the states within the United States proper. The figures given are taken from the United States Census of 1930. Arizona and New Mexico, the latest additions to the union of states, elect one Representative each. Each state will be found described under its title.

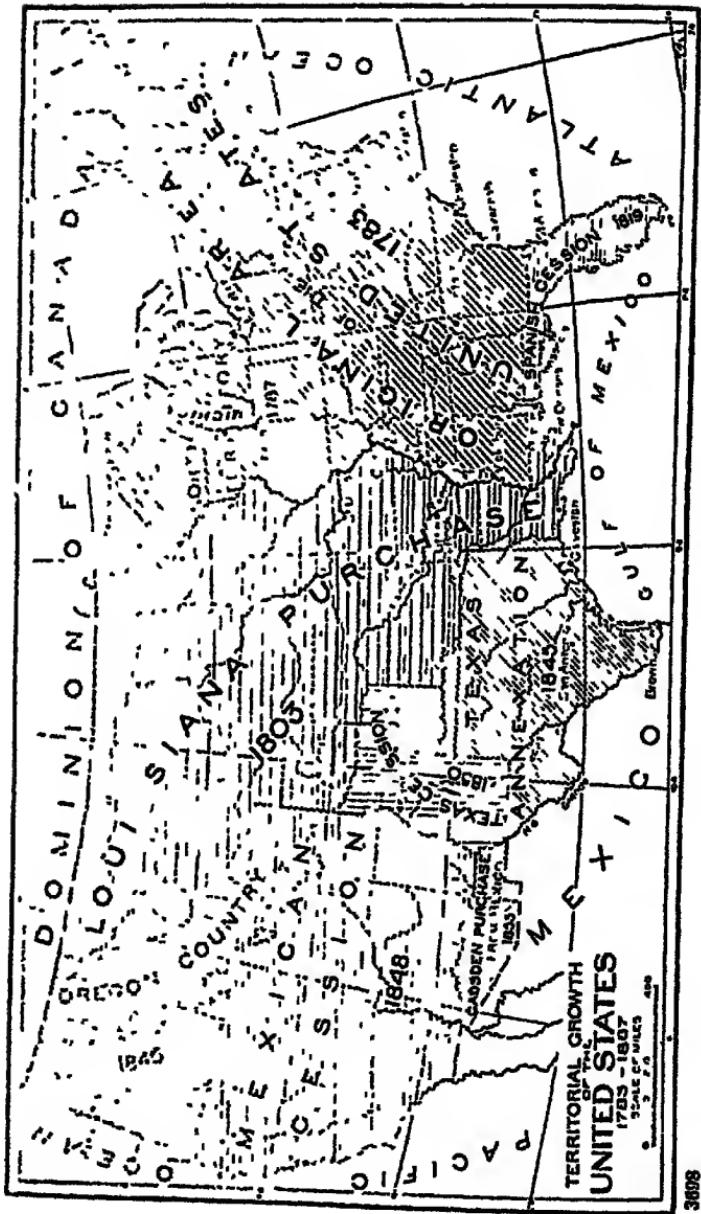
Territorial Expansion

At the organization of the government, the Mississippi River formed the western boundary of the United States, and the



UNITED STATES IN 1800

area of the country was 823,000 square miles. Only about 300,000 square miles, or a little over one-third of this area, was actually settled. In 1803 the first great addition of



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territory was made by the purchase of Louisiana. Sixteen years later, this was followed by the acquisition of Florida. With these acquisitions of territory, the country was openly committed to the policy of expanding her domains, so that in the admission of Texas and the taking over of the territory ceded by Mexico no new policy was established, except in the method pursued. Thus far all territory acquired had been adjoining the United States, but in 1867 Secretary Seward, in the purchase of Alaska, took a radical step, in acquiring territory somewhat remote from the country. A still more radical step was taken in the annexation of Hawaii and the acquisition of the Philippine Islands and Porto Rico. In 1917 the Danish West Indies were purchased and renamed the Virgin Islands. Each of these possessions is described under its title.

The following table contains data concerning the territory added to the United States

TERITORIAL ACQUISITION	YEAR	AREA ADDED (sq mi.)	PURCHASE PRICE
Louisiana	1803	976,126	\$15,600,000
Florida	1819	70,107	4,600,700
Texas	1845	265,706	
Oregon Territory	1846	226,000	
Missouri Comp.	1850	621,822	18,250,000*
Gadsden Purchase	1853	36,211	30,000,000
Alaska	1867	570,000	7,000,000
Hawaiian Islands	1898	6,410	
Porto Rico	1898	3,615	
Cuba	1898	210	
Philippine Islands	1900	114,988	30,000,000
Taiwan (Formosa Is.)	1895	77	100,000
Additional Philippines	1901	65	
Panama Canal Strip	1903	474	20,000,000*
Virgin Islands	1917	134	25,000,000
Total		2,902,216	\$102,028,700
Original Territory		27,294	
Total		2,930,110	

*Based on annual rental of \$220,000.

This does not include \$10,000,000 paid to Texas for territory outside of its present boundaries, but retained in the state at the time of annexation.

Education

The United States has no national system of education, in the sense that there is an educational system administered by the Federal government. However, from the time of the Ordinance of 1787, in which certain sections of land in the Northwest Territory were reserved for educational purposes, the national government has assisted very materially in public education, by granting generous portions of the public domain for the support of universities, agricultural colleges and public schools, and in 1917 liberal appropriations were granted for vocational education below college grade. In addition

to this it maintains the Office of Education, which is a division under the Department of the Interior. The chief officer, called the commissioner of education, collects statistics and publishes a biennial report, containing educational data of national importance. Further than this his duties are advisory only. However, under the able commissioners who have filled the office since the bureau was established, very much has been done to advance the educational interests of the country. The work of the Office is more fully explained in the article EDUCATION, OFFICE OF.

The administration of the public schools is left to the states, and each maintains its own system of public education. However, these systems so closely resemble one another that, taken together, they practically constitute a national system of education. The articles COMMON SCHOOLS, HIGH SCHOOLS, and those on the important universities of the country will furnish additional information.

Art and Literature

For information on American art see the articles PAINTING and SCULPTURE. American literature will be found in the article LITERATURE, subhead *American Literature*.

History

Discovery and Exploration. At the time of its discovery by Europeans, America was inhabited by savages belonging to the American, or Red, race. The origin and antiquity of these people and the degree of their civilization are still subjects of investigation and dispute. It is also uncertain at what time and place the American continents were first discovered. Norse seamen are said to have visited the North American coast about A.D. 1000, and it is probable that fishermen from Northern Europe had made voyages across the Atlantic before that date. But even if both these facts were true, the credit for the real discovery of America must still be given to those navigators who, at the close of the fifteenth century, crossed the Atlantic and explored the shores of the "New World."

The first of these navigators was Christopher Columbus, who in 1492 discovered the Bahama Islands and on later voyages explored the South and Central American coasts. John and Sebastian Cabot in 1497 and 1498, under the auspices of England, skirted the coast of Labrador and perhaps



THE PURITAN
St Gaudens



FOUNTAIN OF THE GREAT LAKES
Taft



COLUMBUS
Bartlett



TWO NATURES
Barnard



MEMORY
French



ETHAN ALLEN
Mead



DEATH AND THE SCULPTOR French



GEORGE WASHINGTON
Ward

New England, giving Britain the basis for her claim to the continent of North America. About the same time Amerigo Vespuccio was exploring the coasts of South America, and in his honor America was named. In 1513 Balboa, a Spanish adventurer, discovered the Pacific, and in the same year Ponce de Leon discovered and explored Florida. Verrazano was the first to represent France in this new field, his voyage being made in 1524. Frenchmen and Spaniards then vied for the control of the new-found riches. Narvaez, Coronado and De Soto, in the south, set out to conquer for Spain the vast interior of the North American continent, while in the north, Cartier, and in Florida, Ribault and the Huguenots attempted to establish the power of France, but without success.

Meanwhile, English enterprise had been dormant, but with the advent of Queen Elizabeth to the throne, in 1558, a group of distinguished mariners became anxious to extend English influence in the New World. Of these, Sir John Hawkins, Sir Francis Drake, Sir Humphrey Gilbert and Sir Walter Raleigh were the most important, but they accomplished little of permanent value. It was not till the opening of the seventeenth century that real progress was made toward subduing and colonizing America. At that time, France, under the leadership of such brilliant men as Champlain, Marquette, Joliet and La Salle, extended her influence throughout the region of Canada and into the Mississippi and Ohio valleys, establishing fur-trading posts throughout this territory. In 1565 Spain established a settlement at Saint Augustine, Florida, and made feeble efforts to extend her authority northward, but with little success.

Colonization. A detailed account of the development of each of the colonies, is given in articles upon the several states and also upon the leading discoveries and explorers of the period.

English Colonies. The chief fact in American history during the seventeenth century is the settlement of English colonies along the Atlantic coast. This was begun in 1607 at Jamestown, Virginia, under the auspices of the London Company, a trading and colonizing corporation similar to the East India Company. This colony was in large measure a commercial and political enterprise, and its settlers were drawn from all classes, but especially from the wealthy

and the adventurous. During its early life Jamestown witnessed some of the most important episodes of American history, among them the establishment of the first representative assembly in America (1619), and the institution of negro slavery (1619).

The second English settlement was at Plymouth, Massachusetts, in 1620, and was made by men who had fled from England to avoid religious persecution. In 1628 a settlement was made at Salem by English Puritans. This, too, was a religious movement. The early history of Plymouth and Salem, the latter called Massachusetts Bay Colony, was somewhat troubled. The colonists early manifested a desire for self-government, which led to bitter contests with the king, but at the same time brought about important progress toward political and religious liberty. However, in 1636 Roger Williams was exiled for his religious belief, and in 1651 a bitter persecution of the Quakers began in Boston. Meantime, Harvard College had been founded in 1638, and the first printing press had been set up in 1639.

The success of the early colonies led to other enterprises, and settlements in New Hampshire and Maine resulted. But even the freedom which was nominally established in Massachusetts did not satisfy that community, and in 1633 bodies of settlers from the coast began to travel inland and found settlements along the Connecticut River. These developed into the Colony of Connecticut, which in 1637 adopted the first written constitution in America, known as the "Fundamental Orders of Connecticut." New Haven was settled in this year and was united with Connecticut in 1682. Maryland was organized as a proprietary colony, under the Lords Baltimore, and its first settlement was at Saint Mary's, the original purpose being to found a haven of refuge for English Catholics. The territory of the Carolinas was first settled by Virginians, but in 1663 it was granted to eight English noblemen, who divided it into two colonies, which were again united in 1699, but governed separately after 1729.

Pennsylvania was a Quaker proprietary colony, founded by William Penn, Jr., in 1676 and colonized six years later. Its government was organized on an extremely liberal basis and exerted a powerful influence upon other American colonies. The settlement of Rhode Island was the outgrowth of

the religious persecution in Massachusetts, being founded by two exiles, Roger Williams and Anne Hutchinson, the former settling at Providence, the latter at Portsmouth.

They eventually united their forces. Georgia was the last of the thirteen colonies to be settled, it was founded by James Oglethorpe in 1732, as a refuge for honest debtors. A village was settled at Savannah in the following year.

Other Colonies. New Jersey was first colonized by the Dutch at Fort Nassau, now Gloucester. This was subsequently conquered by the Swedes, restored to the Dutch in 1655 and finally transferred to the English in 1664, becoming a proprietary province under Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret. The Dutch were also the first to establish colonies within the territory of New York, by reason of the voyage of Henry Hudson in 1609. Albany was settled in 1614, and New Amsterdam (New York), the same year. The colony was conquered by the English in 1664. Delaware was long a fighting ground between the Dutch and the Swedes, the latter finally being compelled to relinquish their claim, but the English conquered in 1664.

Colonial Development. During the seventeenth century the scattering colonies of all the nations steadily advanced in strength and constantly extended their borders, until the Atlantic coast from Labrador to Mexico was dotted with prosperous villages and trading centers. During the first half of the eighteenth century, the interests of France and England began to come into conflict, as each attempted to extend its dominion over the fertile interior of the continent. This resulted in a series of wars, known, collectively, as the French and Indian wars, extending with but slight interruptions from 1689 to 1763. This long conflict had three great results from the standpoint of the colonies: (1) It practically drove France from America and decided that American institutions should be organized chiefly upon British models, (2) it gave the colonists military experience and a feeling of independent power, which made them more willing to stand firmly for their rights against the mother country, (3) it disclosed the necessity for intercolonial union.

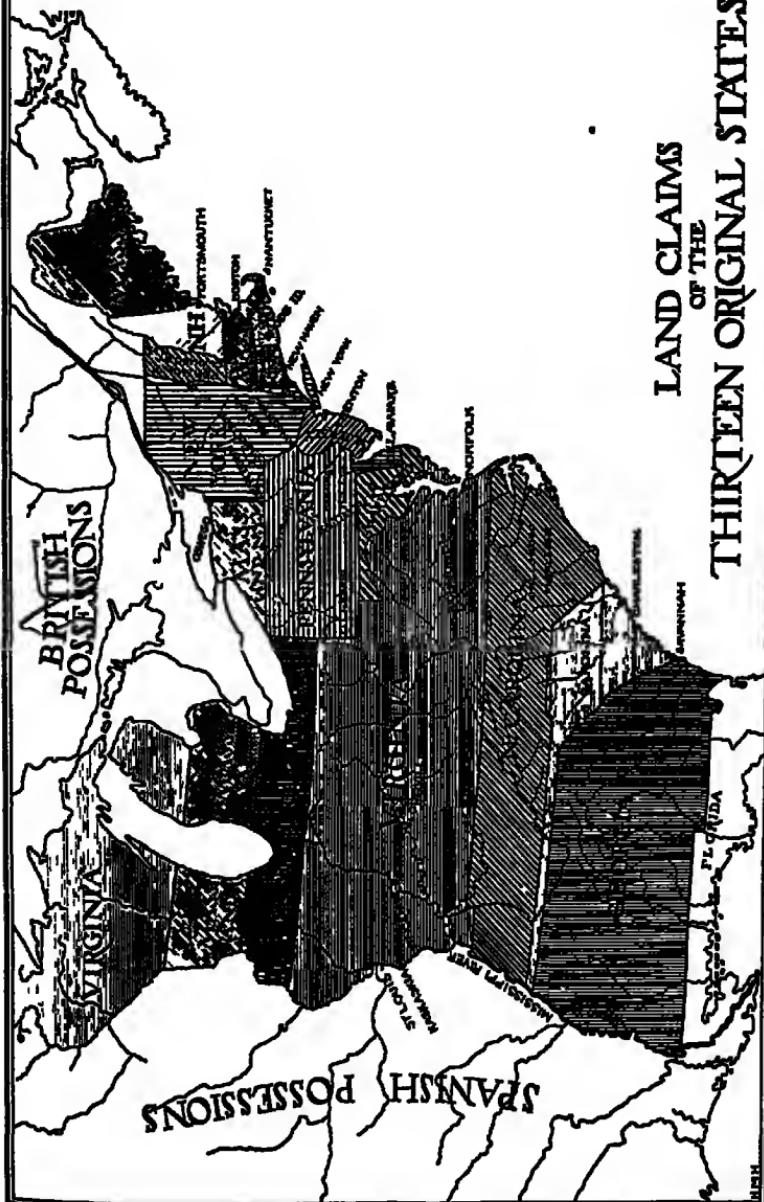
During this same time the colonies were developing politically and were manifesting more and more clearly their determination to govern themselves, at least in all local affairs.

The Development of Union. From the earliest times events in America had shaped themselves to the end that the colonies should become not independent units, but parts of a general system. By the middle of the eighteenth century the necessity of such a result had become more evident, only because in the meantime minor issues of a local nature had been decided, and because recent events, in which all the colonies were united, had disclosed to the colonists their common interests and ideals. This development of the spirit of union culminated in 1754 in a congress, held at Albany for the purpose of framing a treaty of friendship with the Indians, and also of devising a plan for the union of all the colonies. The latter plan, prepared by Franklin, was adopted by the convention, but it was rejected by every colony and by the mother country. The reasons for its rejection disclosed a state of affairs which found its natural conclusion in the Revolutionary War. Says Franklin, "The Assembly did not adopt it, as they all thought there was too much *privilege* in it, and in England, it was judged to have too much of the *democratic*." Thus the issue was clearly drawn between England and the colonies, the former was set resolutely against the growing spirit of independence and democracy in America; the latter were determined to prevent interference in their affairs.

Revolutionary War. Causes and Beginnings. The fundamental cause of the Revolutionary War had both economic and political phases. It was laid in the theory of colonization held by every important country in the world at that time, namely, that colonies existed for the mother country and that they had no political or commercial rights except those specifically granted to them. This principle probably would not have been contested, if the tendency of all governments, and especially of England, had not been to repress the growing strength of their colonies and thus to cause distressing economic conditions, which the colonists themselves had no power to remedy.

This led to the demand for political self-government, which, when refused, roused a spirit of resistance and, finally, of revolution. This end was hastened by the passage of more and more repressive legislation, such as the enlargement of the Navigation Acts (which see), the establishment of British garrisons in America and the taxation of the colonies to

LAND CLAIMS
OF THE
THIRTEEN ORIGINAL STATES



support these garrisons. To enforce the second policy, a stamp tax was inaugurated, which gave to every colonist a grievance and awakened the famous cry, "Taxation without representation is tyranny." The act repealing the Stamp Act was accompanied by a declaration that the Crown had the right to tax the colonies, and thus it was of little benefit in appeasing the wrath of the Americans. When followed by the Townshend Acts the situation became serious and culminated in open violence in Boston, during which British soldiers in Boston killed a number of citizens.

It soon became evident to the leading men in the colonies that little was to be expected in the direction of conciliation, and an effort was made to unite the colonies more firmly in opposition to the mother country. One of the important means to this end was the formation of committees of correspondence, which kept the different colonies informed of the march of events throughout the country. The spirit of defiance became more widespread, as was indicated by the destruction of the *Gaspée*, a British man-of-war, stationed near Rhode Island to prevent violation of the customs laws, and by the Boston Tea Party. To punish this lawlessness, the British government passed, and attempted to enforce, laws clearly violating the English constitution, and striking at rights especially dear to the colonists. Among these were the Boston Port Bill, closing the port of Boston to all commerce, and acts allowing the trial in England of certain official offenders, permitting the quartering of soldiers upon the colonies and abolishing certain provisions of their charters. To enforce these laws, General Gage and a force of soldiers were sent to Massachusetts.

The colonies were thoroughly aroused, and in reply to a request of the Massachusetts assembly, they sent delegates to a congress at Philadelphia, September 1, 1774. This body, known as the First Continental Congress, passed resolutions of protest against the British policy and agreed not to import goods from England, then adjourned, to reassemble May 1, 1775. Their petition to Parliament was answered by still more oppressive acts; and before the second Congress met, the American cause had gone beyond the stage of discussion or compromise. The colonies, led by Massachusetts, collected military forces and supplies, and when Gen-

eral Gage attempted to seize the stores at Lexington and Concord, and to arrest Samuel Adams and John Hancock, his force was met by a body of minutemen, drawn up on Lexington Common. In the battle which followed the first blood in the Revolutionary War was shed. The government of the colonies was soon taken over by the patriots and, guided and inspired by the Second Continental Congress, measures of increasing defiance and independence were taken from time to time (See articles upon the REVOLUTIONARY WAR IN AMERICA and the decisive battles, for brief outlines of the chief military campaigns; see also articles upon the great statesmen and soldiers of the period.)

Results of the War. At the opening of the struggle the people of the country were not united in the conviction that political independence of Great Britain was the end to be desired. They were still loyal to the mother country and were determined to fight to regain their rights as Englishmen. But the passage of events and the necessary assumption of the ordinary functions of government by Congress and the provisional governments of the colonies, brought the question of independence prominently forward and finally caused independence to be proclaimed. Meanwhile, foreign relations had been established by the appointment of a committee to correspond with foreign governments, and this resulted, in February, 1778, in the signing of a treaty of alliance with France. This treaty is generally considered the turning-point of the war, since it led to such active support by France that England was eventually compelled to make peace, the treaty being signed at Paris, September 3, 1783.

Articles of Confederation. The financial and internal affairs of the colonies were in a far from satisfactory state. The Continental Congress had assumed only the absolutely necessary functions and had no legal power to compel obedience to its decrees. Appreciating the importance of forming a stronger government to replace that which was being destroyed by the Revolution, Congress appointed a committee in the summer of 1776, to draw up articles for the confederation of the thirteen colonies. These articles, though a vast improvement over the organization which had previously existed, left much to be desired, since the same spirit

MASSACHUSETTS



PLYMOUTH ROCK

When enough other ships after 1
British sailed, the main
movement of the New England
colonies made a difficult point to find.

Town - 1630
Name - Plymouth
City - New Bedford
Famous - Pilgrim Fathers
Character - Religious
Symbol - Star



MAP OF NEW ENGLAND



SALEM WITCHCRAFT

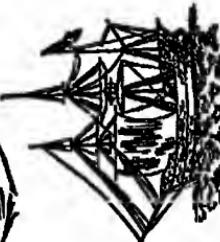
Time - 1692
Place - Salem, Mass.
Cause - Accusation of the Devil
Effect - Execution of 19
People
Punishment - Death
Moral - Right is always
Right
Lesson Learned - Don't
Believe in things you
haven't seen



ELM TREE



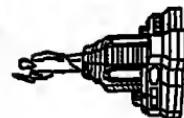
FIRST PRINTING
PRESS



PINE TREE



BOSTON
HUB OF THE UNIVERSE



PILGRIM MONUMENT



FAENEUIL HALL,
"CANDLE OF LIBERTY"



SHILLING

HOW THE HISTORY OF A COLONY MAY BE ILLUSTRATED FOR STUDY

which had led the colonists to resist the encroachments of British power led them to fear the establishment of a strong power among themselves. The articles therefore provided for no executive head of the government, leaving all power with Congress, which could pass laws only with the consent of the representatives of nine states, a majority of the representatives of each state being necessary to cast its vote.

In spite of the apparent weakness of the government which was thus created, state jealousies prevented the adoption of the articles until almost the close of the war, in 1781. Meantime, the financial affairs of the government as a whole and of the several colonies had come to a serious state, since all the governments had been compelled to borrow vast sums of money and, besides, had issued paper notes in payment of debts. This paper money, coming from many sources without adequate security, rapidly depreciated in value, until at the close of the war it was practically worthless. The department of war was in a similarly disorganized state.

Adoption of the Constitution. Soon after the adoption of the Articles of Confederation a large faction in the states demanded that a stronger government be immediately organized, but it was several years before they were able to win public sentiment to their view. Finally, in 1786, a convention was proposed by several states, for the purpose of amending the Articles, in order to increase the power of the central government. This convention met in May, 1787, at Philadelphia, and contained in its membership the most able and distinguished statesmen in America, including George Washington, Alexander Hamilton, James Madison, Gouverneur Morris, Robert Morris, Roger Sherman and others. Its sessions were turbulent, owing to the presence of a strong minority party, who feared the centralization of authority, and it was only through compromise that the Constitution was finally produced and accepted. In its completed form it did not satisfy either party, and the discussion which had taken place in the convention was carried before the people in the contest for ratification. Through the efforts of Jay, Hamilton, Madison, Henry Lee, George Washington and others, it was finally adopted, however, being recognized as the most satisfactory constitution which could at that time be made.

Before its final adjournment, the old Congress of the Confederation performed its most notable work, in passing the famous Ordinance of 1787, for the government of the Northwest Territory.

Organization of the National Government. After the ratification of the Constitution by nine states, Congress proceeded to plan for the organization of the new government. The election, held in January, 1789, resulted in the unanimous choice of George Washington for President; John Adams, having the next highest number of votes, was made Vice-President. The inauguration of the government was delayed until April 30, 1789. Washington took the oath of office at New York, where the first national Congress was assembled.

This body already showed a tendency toward division. The Federalists, that is, those who had advocated the ratification of the Constitution, were opposed by the old Anti-Federalists, now styling themselves Democratic-Republicans, or Republicans, who desired the strict interpretation of the Constitution and a tendency toward decentralization of power. Washington chose for his advisers representatives of both of these factions, Hamilton being the acknowledged leader of the former, and Jefferson, of the latter. Hamilton became Secretary of the Treasury, and the first important action of the new government was the carrying into effect of principles suggested by him for the management of the finances of the country. These included the inauguration of the tariff duties; the establishment of a national bank, the assumption of debts contracted by the states during the Revolution; the institution of the excise tax, the establishment of a national mint, and a system of coinage. All of these measures aroused the greatest opposition, but all were passed, and all soon proved their value and efficacy. Washington set himself to organize the executive departments of the government, and he established precedents which have ever since been followed. During his first term, also, the judicial system was organized, and the first ten amendments to the Federal Constitution were adopted.

In spite of his opposition, Washington was nominated and reelected unanimously in 1793. Adams was also reelected Vice-President, but was opposed by George Clinton of New York, a Republican. The most important matter connected with Washington's

second administration was the relation of the government to foreign nations, especially England and France. The Federalists sympathized with England, and the Republicans sympathized with France, in the war which had begun between them. The visit of Citizen Genet, Washington's refusal to recognize him and the later proclamation of neutrality, together with the signing of the very unsatisfactory treaty with England, known as the Jay Treaty, and the refusal of England to evacuate its posts in the Northwest Territory or to grant privileges to American commerce, all led to serious domestic disturbances and almost to war, but such an event was averted by Washington's tact and frankness. His second administration was also important for the suppression of the first rebellion against the government, the Whisky Insurrection in Pennsylvania, for the unsuccessful expedition of Saint Clair against the Indians and the successful expedition of General Wayne, resulting in the cession of a large tract of land by the Indians to the United States. A treaty was negotiated with Spain, by which the United States secured the free navigation of the Mississippi. In 1793 Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin, which was to be of greater political importance during the next century than any other single invention of history.

Washington positively refused to accept a third term as President, delivered a famous farewell address and retired to Mount Vernon. He was succeeded by John Adams, a Federalist, who received 71 votes, in opposition to Thomas Jefferson, a Republican, who received but 63. Adams' administration was at first highly popular, on account of the firm stand which it took against the insolent actions of France, but the passage in 1798 of the Alien and Sedition acts not only forfeited the popularity of the party, but led to its overthrow. The famous Kentucky and Virginia resolutions were passed at this time in relation to these laws. The seat of government was changed in 1800 from Philadelphia to Washington. Doubtless the most important appointment of Adams' administration was that of John Marshall to be Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court.

At the election in 1800, Adams was defeated, but the two Republican candidates, Jefferson and Burr, had an equal number of electoral votes. The House of Representatives elected Jefferson after a long contest.

Supremacy of the Anti-Federalists The ascendancy of the Anti-Federalists marks an important change in American politics. At the close of the Revolutionary War there was a notable reaction from the extreme ideas of liberty which that struggle had expressed, and the Constitution placed far more power in the central government than pleased many of the more radical Democrats in the country. But after Adams' administration, another reaction set in, away from centralization, toward democracy. In spite of his theories of strict construction, Jefferson soon was compelled to take steps involving broader powers than either of his Federalist predecessors had assumed. First was the purchase of Louisiana in 1803, the constitutionality of which even he himself doubted. On the other hand, he attempted to reduce the importance of the national government by making but small appropriations for the army and navy, but he was compelled to abandon even this policy when a war with the Barbary powers broke out in 1801. During his first term the Twelfth Amendment to the Constitution was passed, changing the method of voting for President and Vice-President.

Jefferson was reelected in 1804, with George Clinton of New York as Vice-President. The most important problem which confronted him during his second administration was the relation of the United States to the commercial war between France and England. He attempted to establish in law his theory that the United States could compel Europe to consider its rights by shutting American ports to the commerce of European nations. This was the cause of the Embargo Act of December, 1807, forbidding American vessels to leave for foreign ports (see EMBARGO). However, this measure did not accomplish its intended purpose, but instead it seriously injured American commerce. The relations between the United States and Great Britain became more and more strained, because of the persistent attempts of British vessels to impress seamen from American ships. This resulted in several small battles. During Jefferson's administration, also, Aaron Burr attempted to separate the western states from the Union. Lewis and Clark made their famous expedition to the Pacific coast (see LEWIS AND CLARK EXPLORATION), the Cumberland Road was authorized and begun; West Point Military Academy was established; Fulton succeeded in constructing the

first successful steamboat, and the slave trade was abolished after 1808.

Jefferson declined a third election and was succeeded by his Secretary of State, James Madison, who defeated Charles C Pinckney. The Embargo Act was replaced by the Non-Intercourse Act, before Madison's inauguration, but this did not relieve matters greatly. Madison attempted to carry out Jefferson's policy, but was finally compelled to take more stern measures, and the War of 1812 resulted. Meantime, Madison was reelected, with Elbridge Gerry as Vice-President, defeating De Witt Clinton. The war was vigorously opposed by the Federalists, especially of New England, and they held a convention at Hartford, in December, 1814, which, it was rumored, threatened secession, but this movement did not gain sufficient strength to be a serious menace to the country. The treaty of peace was signed at Ghent, December 24, 1814.

The end of the war marked, also, the practical end of the Federalist party as an organization, for its unpatriotic stand during the war had won for it the derision of people in all parts of the country. However, the Anti-Federalist party had meantime so changed its position upon constitutional questions that many of the Federalist principles were already firmly incorporated in the government. During Madison's term, laws were passed granting a second charter to the United States Bank, establishing a protective tariff and appropriating large sums for internal improvements, all measures which the Anti-Federalists had formerly opposed. The Supreme Court, under Marshall's leadership, had also taken firm ground in favor of a strong national government.

The Era of Good Feeling. In 1816 James Monroe of Virginia, Madison's Secretary of State, was elected President, receiving the votes of all the states except Massachusetts, Connecticut and Delaware, which were cast for Rufus King of New York. Since the downfall of the Federalist party had removed many questions from controversy, Monroe's administration is sometimes known as the "Era of Good Feeling," but, in fact, just as sincere debate was carried on during this time as at any time before or after, the main questions being the tariff and the admission of Missouri, the latter of which involved the discussion of the rising issue of slavery. Monroe was reelected in 1820, receiving all the elec-

toral votes but one, which was cast for John Quincy Adams. The most important incident of his second administration was the promulgation of the Monroe Doctrine. In 1824 a higher protective tariff was passed. The election of 1824 turned upon personal questions and resulted in a contest between Andrew Jackson, John Quincy Adams, William H. Crawford and Henry Clay, the House of Representatives finally electing John Quincy Adams.

Era of the Whigs. This election marks another change in the political history of the United States. The Republican, or Democratic-Republican, party at that time took the name of Democratic, which it has since retained, and the Clay and Adams factions, consisting of the loose constructionists of the old party, took the name of National Republican, which eventually was changed to Whig. Adams' administration was marked by a long controversy between his followers and those of Jackson, who claimed that they had been deprived of the election by a corrupt compact between Adams and Clay. This helped to defeat the Adams faction in 1828 and to elect Jackson. The most important event of this period was the passage of the Tariff of Abominations of 1828, which led to the nullification controversy in the following administration. Adams' term also saw the extension of the policy of internal improvements at the expense of the national government, and the beginning of a vast immigration into the West.

Democracy Again in Power. Jackson was elected in 1828 by a vote of 178 to 83, with John C. Calhoun as Vice-President. This election marks the return of the radical Democratic party to power. The chief contests of Jackson's term were over the United States Bank and the tariff, the former being refused a continuance of its charter and the latter resulting in the nullification episode, which was firmly handled by President Jackson, secession being prevented by a compromise bill introduced by Henry Clay. During this controversy the famous debate between Daniel Webster and Robert Y. Hayne occurred. Jackson was reelected in 1832 over Henry Clay, John Floyd and William Wirt, and Martin Van Buren was chosen Vice-President. His second administration was marked by Indian disturbances, in the South with the Cherokee and Seminole, and in the West with the Sac and Foxes under Black Hawk.

The Senate took firm ground against the President, especially for his attitude toward the national bank, and thus contest was bitter throughout his term. The question of the independence or annexation of Texas also arose during Jackson's second term and agitated the increasing importance of the slavery controversy, the Texas question resolving itself into a contest upon the part of the South for the extension of slavery territory, and resistance to this policy by the North. The first anti-slavery societies date from this time. President Jackson's terms were also notable for the first important contest over the spoils system, which he had introduced into the national government.

Jackson was succeeded by his follower, Martin Van Buren, who defeated the Whig candidate, William Henry Harrison of Indiana. Richard M. Johnson was elected Vice-President. The first year of Van Buren's term was marked by a terrible financial panic, which caused the failure of many banks and corporations and produced great suffering among the people. Van Buren continued the hostility of the Democratic party to the establishment of a national bank and replaced that institution by a system known as the independent treasury. Van Buren's plan, with modifications, has continued to the present.

A Whig Triumph. The financial depression and other issues led to the election of the popular Whig candidate, William Henry Harrison, in 1840, after a memorable campaign, known to history as the "log cabin and hard cider campaign." The anti-slavery party at this election for the first time nominated independent candidates, James G. Birney being the candidate of the Liberty party. Harrison died shortly after his inauguration, and was succeeded by John Tyler, formerly a Democrat. He immediately came into conflict with Congress over the proposed reestablishment of the national bank, and he vetoed two bills drawn to that end. The controversy became so heated that all of Tyler's Cabinet except Webster resigned, he remaining merely to complete the negotiation of the famous Webster-Ashburton Treaty, which fixed the northeastern boundary between the United States and Canada.

In 1845 President Tyler arranged a treaty with the Republic of Texas, providing for the future annexation of that country to the United States, but it was rejected by the Senate. The Texas question became the

leading issue in the following campaign, however, which resulted in the election of James K. Polk, the Democratic candidate, over Henry Clay, the Whig, and James G. Birney, the candidate of the Liberty party. Before Tyler left office Congress had approved a resolution for the annexation of Texas.

Texas and the Mexican War. The administration of President Polk was chiefly notable for the precipitatum of the Mexican War, as a result of his order to the United States troops under General Taylor to take possession of territory claimed by both Texas and Mexico. Texas was admitted as a state in June, 1845. The war resulted in an easy victory for the United States and by the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo the United States territory was greatly extended. The war is described in the article [MEXICAN WAR](#).

The dispute over the territory of Oregon was also an issue in the campaign in 1844 and was settled by a treaty with England in 1846. During Polk's administration, the Walker tariff of 1846 was passed, it was a return to the principle of tariff for revenue only. The independent treasury was also firmly established. The slavery question again cropped out over the extension of the institution to the territory acquired from Mexico and in the formation of the Free-Soil party. Gold was discovered in California in 1848 and resulted in a vast immigration to that region.

The Liberty party had been fused with the Free-Soil party, and in 1848 it nominated Martin Van Buren as its candidate for President, against Lewis Cass, the Democratic nominee, and General Zachary Taylor, the Whig nominee. Taylor was elected, with Millard Fillmore as Vice-President.

Downfall of the Whigs. In spite of its triumph at this election, the Whig party soon showed signs of disintegration, being absorbed in part by the Free-Soil movement, which later took form in the Republican party. Meanwhile, the Democratic party came under the control of its pro-slavery faction, and the slavery issue was therefore brought to a crisis. For a time in 1850 the controversy seemed to be allayed through the compromise measures, which admitted California as a free state, but gave the South numerous concessions, in the form of the Fugitive Slave Law and the organization of New Mexico and Utah with the right to admit or prohibit slavery as they chose.

President Taylor died before the passage of these acts, and Millard Fillmore succeeded to the Presidency. The most important event of his administration was the signing of the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, regarding the inter-oceanic canal. In the election of 1852 the Democrats were successful, Franklin Pierce of New Hampshire becoming President, and William R. King of Alabama, Vice-President. The Whig nominees were General Winfield Scott and William A. Graham. The Free-Soil party nominated John P. Hale of New Hampshire and George W. Julian.

Slavery. In spite of the apparent cessation of the slavery controversy, the struggle soon revived over the organization of the territories of Kansas and Nebraska, and the doctrine proposed by Stephen A. Douglas for the regulation of these territories, known as "squatter sovereignty" (which see). This contest marked the final dissolution of the Whig party, most of the Southern members joining with the Democrats in favor of the extension of slavery, the Northerners, together with other anti-slavery factions, uniting to form the Republican party. During this time a fierce struggle for the possession of Kansas ensued between the anti-slavery and pro-slavery factions (see KANSAS, sub-head *History*). It was during Pierce's administration that Commodore Perry negotiated his treaty with Japan.

The election of 1856 again resulted in a Democratic success, James Buchanan being elected President and John C. Breckinridge Vice-President, over John C. Fremont and William L. Dayton, the Republican candidates, and Millard Fillmore and A. J. Donelson, the nominees of a new party, known as the Know-Nothings or American party. It was during Buchanan's administration that the slavery struggle came to a head. It witnessed the Supreme Court decision in the Dred Scott case, declaring that Congress had no right to prohibit slavery in the territories; the attempts upon the part of Southern statesmen to gain possession of Cuba, for the extension of slavery, and the continuation of the bitter struggle in Kansas, which resulted, in the succeeding administration, in the admission of Kansas as a free state. In 1859 occurred John Brown's raid at Harper's Ferry, which roused the most bitter antagonism in the South. The Democratic party was now practically divided, and two sets of candidates were nominated, one by the North-

ern wing and the other by the Southern wing. The former was Stephen A. Douglas, of Illinois, and Herschel V. Johnson, of Georgia, the latter, John C. Breckinridge, of Kentucky, and Joseph Lane, of Oregon. The Republicans nominated Abraham Lincoln, of Illinois, and Hannibal Hamlin, of Maine, while a third party, the successor of the American party, now known as the Constitutional Union party, nominated John Bell, of Tennessee, and Edward Everett, of Massachusetts. Lincoln was elected by a comparatively small plurality and by far less than a majority of the popular vote.

Secession. The election of Lincoln was the signal for the South to take measures to overcome the overwhelming opposition to them in the United States government, and it resulted in the secession of South Carolina on December 20, 1860. Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Texas, Virginia, Arkansas, North Carolina and Tennessee followed within the next six months, and a new nation, known as the Confederate States of America, was organized at Montgomery, Ala., in February, 1861. President Buchanan opposed secession, but denied his right to coerce the seceding states to return to the Union, and therefore he made little effort to protect government property in the South, which was being taken over as rapidly as possible by the seceding states. Efforts at compromise were made during Buchanan's administration, but without effect. A resolution introduced into the Senate by Senator Crittenden proposed to divide the Union into a slave country and a free country.

Civil War. In his inaugural address President Lincoln urged all sections and classes to come to the support of the government, but expressed his determination to prevent secession. Accordingly, he soon called for volunteers. The Confederate government also called for volunteers and retaliated for Lincoln's proclamation of a blockade by licensing privateers to prey upon Northern commerce. The war began with the bombardment of Fort Sumter on April 14, and its surrender. In April, 1862, Congress purchased and emancipated all slaves in the District of Columbia, two months later it abolished slavery throughout the territories and the public domain, and on January 1, 1863, President Lincoln issued his famous Emancipation Proclamation, which he had announced in the previous September, after the Battle of Ant-

tatem. This proclamation set free all the slaves in states then in rebellion against the United States.

During the war the President did not have the undivided support of the North. His suspension of the writ of habeas corpus, the suppression of newspapers and of public gatherings, the Conscription Act of 1863 and the apparent failure of the Union armies in the field during the early years of the war, all led to serious opposition and criticism. The financial problems of the war also necessitated taxes and other extraordinary measures, which became exceedingly unpopular. However in the election of 1864 the Democratic party, in spite of the nomination of a popular general, George B. McClellan, was defeated, on a platform which declared that the war was a failure, and Lincoln was triumphantly reelected. West Virginia, which had been separated from the old State of Virginia, soon after the beginning of the struggle, was admitted to the Union in December, 1863. The war practically came to a close on the surrender of General Lee in April, 1865, but the rejoicing which that event caused was soon overshadowed by universal sorrow at the assassination of President Lincoln, April 14. For a full account of the war, see the article CIVIL WAR IN AMERICA. See, also, articles on the important battles and the leading statesmen and military leaders of the period.

Reconstruction. The problems which the close of the war would bring were anticipated by Lincoln and by Congress, and steps were taken as early as 1863 to provide for the return of the seceded states to the Union and the reestablishment of loyal state governments. President Johnson, who succeeded to the presidency at the death of Lincoln, carried out as far as possible his predecessor's lenient policy of reconstruction, but in so doing he won the enmity of Congress and was impeached, being saved from conviction by a single vote. Meantime, Congress had passed the Thirteenth Amendment, abolishing slavery, and it had been ratified in December, 1865. It had also passed other laws, placing the Southern states in the position of conquered provinces. In 1868, Arkansas, Alabama, Florida, North and South Carolina, Georgia and Louisiana were readmitted to the Union.

The election of 1868 placed General U. S. Grant in the President's chair, with Schuyler

Colfax of Indiana, as Vice-President. The Democratic candidates were Horatio Seymour of New York, and Francis P. Blair, Jr., of Missouri. Before Grant's inauguration, the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments to the Constitution had been passed, granting suffrage to the negroes. The latter was ratified in March, 1870.

The most important event of Grant's first term was the settlement of the Alabama claims, which were claims of the United States against England for American ships destroyed by the *Alabama*, a Confederate privateer that was fitted out in England. The award was favorable to the United States. The Union Pacific Railroad was completed, giving the country its first transcontinental railway, but the construction was accompanied by a stock deal which involved several members of Congress and the Vice-President in a notorious scandal, fully described in the article CREDIT MOULDER OF AMERICA.

The reconstruction policy of Congress led to serious difficulties in the South, which the President sought to remove, but with only partial success. Irresponsible demagogues from the North secured appointment to offices in the South, and were thus placed in positions which they were nowise qualified to fill. Their chief aim seemed to be to reap all possible benefit for themselves and then to leave the country when they could no longer hold office. They were styled *carpetbaggers*, because it was alleged that they could carry all their personal effects in a carpetbag.

This carpetbag régime and other abuses led to the formation of a secret organization among the men of the South, known as the Ku-Klux Klan, whose chief purpose was to resist the carpetbaggers and to prevent the execution of their orders. A fuller account of these events will be found in the articles RECONSTRUCTION and INCARNATION, and in the articles on the various Southern states under the subhead History.

The Credit Moulder scandal led to a demand for a reform in the civil service, which was made an important issue in the succeeding campaign. The issue, with that of reconstruction and the tendency of the Republicans to centralize power, led to the formation of a new party, the Liberal Republican party, whose candidates, Horace Greeley and B. Gratz Brown, were endorsed by the Democratic convention. However, General Grant

was reelected, with Henry Wilson of Massachusetts as Vice-President, Greeley having died before the count of the electoral votes. In the same election the Prohibition party and a labor reform party first appeared.

Grant's second term was troublesome. Soon after his reelection he was confronted by a difficulty with Spain. A Spanish warship seized the American merchantman *Weymouth*, which was carrying munitions and other supplies to the rebels in Cuba. Four Cubans who were on the vessel, the captain and thirty-six of the crew, were executed by orders of the Spanish authorities. The affair came near leading the country into war with Spain, but it was finally settled by diplomacy. Another difficulty was caused by the alliance of several Federal revenue collectors with distillers for the purpose of defrauding the government of the excise tax on whisky. This *Whisky Ring*, as the combination was called, had influential friends in the Treasury Department at Washington, and it was a long time before the loss of revenue could be located. The "ring" was finally exposed, the officials implicated were dismissed from office and the distillers were prosecuted and convicted, but most of the prominent ones were pardoned. There was a controversy over the resumption of specie payments and a disastrous financial panic in 1873. Indian troubles culminated in a war with the Modocs and Sioux, during which General Custer and his entire force were massacred.

In 1876 the Centennial Exposition was held in Philadelphia to commemorate the first century of the nation's independence. It was the first great international exposition held in America, and all the leading nations of the world were represented.

Industrial and Economic Progress. Discontent with Grant's administration increased. The Democrats gained a majority in Congress and made a hard fight for the election of 1876. Their candidate, Samuel J. Tilden, received a majority of the popular vote, but was defeated by one electoral vote, as a result of an investigation by a specially constituted electoral commission, which considered the disputed returns from several states. The successful candidate, President Hayes, immediately withdrew United States troops from the South and thus paved the way for a return of good feeling between the two sections. His term was also notable for the rise of a party representing the laboring

classes, which demanded a bimetallic standard of money, the suppression of national bank notes, the institution of an income tax and the prohibition of Chinese immigration. This party became known as the Greenback party. In 1878 the Bland-Allison Bill, which required the government to purchase not less than \$2,000,000 nor more than \$4,000,000 of silver per month, was passed, and in the following year specie payments were resumed. In 1880 within the Republican party arose a fierce contest for control between the followers of Ulysses S. Grant who demanded for him a third term, and those of James G. Blaine and John Sherman. James A. Garfield, of Ohio, a compromise candidate, was finally chosen, however, and was victorious over General Winfield S. Hancock, the Democratic nominee, and James B. Weaver, the Greenback-Labor candidate.

The early part of Garfield's administration was marked by the continuation of the party contest and by the disclosure of frauds in the postal service. President Garfield was assassinated in July, 1881, and died in the following September, Chester A. Arthur becoming President. During his administration the Edmunds law against polygamy was passed, also a bill suspending Chinese immigration for ten years. Civil service reform was forced to the front by the Democratic party, and in 1884 their nominee, Grover Cleveland, of New York, was elected over James G. Blaine by a small popular plurality. The election disclosed an independent movement in the Republican party, which was led by some of the most prominent Republicans in the country. Benjamin F. Butler, of Massachusetts, was the candidate of the Greenback-Labor party, and John P. Saint John was the candidate of the Prohibition party.

President Cleveland proceeded to extend the civil-service reform to a vast number of offices, thus securing the antagonism of many of the political leaders in his own party. The death of Vice-President Hendricks made necessary the passage of a law governing the Presidential succession. During the same administration a new anti-polygamy law, the Interstate Commerce Act of 1887 and a law prohibiting Chinese immigration, were passed. The administration was characterized by an unprecedented use of the veto power, especially upon private pension bills. The campaign of 1888 turned upon the tariff,

which President Cleveland had brought forward as an issue by a late message in December, 1887. Cleveland was nominated by the Democrats in that year, but was defeated by the Republican candidate, Benjamin Harrison, though Cleveland received a majority of the popular vote.

Harrison's administration was notable for the remarkable diplomacy of James G. Blaine, for the extension of the policy of reciprocity, for the passage of the McKinley Tariff Bill, the extension of the pension system by a dependent pension law, passed in 1890, by the repeal of the Bland-Allison law and the substitution of the Sherman Silver Purchase Act, requiring the Secretary of the Treasury to purchase 4,500,000 ounces of silver each month and to coin 2,000,000 ounces into dollars monthly. The monarchy in the Hawaiian Islands was overthrown, and a bill favoring annexation to the United States was passed by Congress. In 1892 the Democratic party returned to power, with Grover Cleveland and Adlai E. Stevenson as its candidates, the Republicans having nominated President Harrison and Whitelaw Reid. The People's party, or Populists, the successor of the Greenback-Labor party, nominated James B. Weaver of Iowa and received 22 electoral votes.

Financial Depression The second administration of Cleveland opened with a terrible financial panic, with which most of the early important events of his term were connected, especially his efforts to repeal the Sherman law, his issuance of bonds to replenish the treasury gold reserve and the passage of the Wilson Tariff Law. The treaty of annexation of Hawaii was also withdrawn from the Senate, and the United States government made an effort to reestablish the monarchy over the islands. Cleveland's term was also marked by the successful intervention of the United States in a boundary dispute between Venezuela and Great Britain, by a great world's fair at Chicago, by the settlement of the Bering Sea controversy over the seal fisheries, by the extension of the civil service reform and by a great strike of railroad employees, which necessitated the calling out of Federal troops. The Democratic party failed to support the President in his financial policy, and at its convention in 1896 it nominated William Jennings Bryan of Nebraska for President, upon a platform demanding the free and unlimited coinage of

silver on the ratio of 16 ounces of silver to one ounce of gold. The Republicans nominated William McKinley of Ohio. A fraction of the Democratic party formed a new organization, known as the National Democratic party, favoring the gold standard, and nominated John M. Palmer of Illinois. The Prohibitionist candidate was Joshua Leverenz, the Socialist Labor standard bearer was Charles H. Matchett. The Populist party endorsed Bryan and the Free Silver Prohibition party nominated Charles E. Bentley. McKinley was elected by a large electoral and popular majority.

Spanish-American War and its Effects The most important episode of McKinley's term was the Spanish-American War (which see). It resulted in the abolition of Spanish rule in Cuba and the establishment of military government under the United States, which continued until 1902, when the Republic of Cuba was organized. The war also brought into the possession of the United States the Philippine Islands and Porto Rico. In 1898 Hawaii was annexed to the United States, and in 1900 it was made a territory.

A law establishing the gold dollar as the standard of currency was adopted in 1900, and bills reorganizing the army and abolishing the army canteen were passed in 1901. The United States participated in a joint international military expedition to China, to assist in the suppression of the Boxer rebellion, in 1900. The diplomatic events following this expedition emphasized the change in the position of the United States in international affairs, and showed its new rank as a world power.

The chief issues in the campaign of 1900 were imperialism, that is, the question of the retention of the Philippine Islands, and the trust problem. McKinley was again the Republican nominee, and Bryan was the Democratic candidate. McKinley was elected by an increased majority. Soon after his inauguration, President McKinley was assassinated, while attending the Pan-American Exposition at Buffalo, and he was succeeded by Theodore Roosevelt, who retained McKinley's Cabinet and furthered his policy.

Commercial and Economic Expansion During Roosevelt's administration, the important events were the passage of the Chinese Exclusion Bill, a law providing for the irrigation of the arid lands of the West, the conclusion of a reciprocity treaty with

Cuba; the creation of a department of Commerce and Labor, which in 1913 was reorganized into the Department of Commerce and the Department of Labor, the passage of the bills for the reorganization of the militia, the increase of the navy and the creation of a general staff for the army; the passage of an anti-trust law in 1903, the ratification of a treaty between the United States and Great Britain, giving the United States the right to construct and maintain a canal across the Isthmus. In 1904 a treaty was concluded with the new Republic of Panama providing for the construction of the Panama Canal. Roosevelt's administration was also marked by the successful conclusion of a treaty fixing the boundary between Alaska and the Northwest Territories of the Dominion of Canada, the result being generally favorable to the United States. The campaign of 1904 turned on the personalities of the candidates and on the questions raised by the policy of the Roosevelt administration. Roosevelt was elected by a large majority over Alton B. Parker, the Democratic candidate. The successful intervention of President Roosevelt to end the Russo-Japanese War, the prosecution of several large corporations for violation of the anti-trust law, the agitation for regulation of railroad rates, the rigid investigations of insurance corporations, and the movement for the conservation of natural resources are important in Roosevelt's second administration.

Republican Defeat. In the election of 1908, William Howard Taft, the Republican candidate, was successful over Bryan. In the spring of 1909 the President called Congress in special session to revise the tariff. But the new tariff was unpopular, and was one of the strongest factors in causing the election of a majority of Democrats to the House of Representatives in 1910. This Congress passed acts for the admission of Arizona and New Mexico as states, and considered a reciprocity treaty with Canada which was finally rejected by the Canadians.

The election of 1912 was marked by a split in the Republican party. The regular Republicans renominated Taft and Sherman, but the supporters of Roosevelt, charging that they had been defrauded of their rights in the convention, withdrew, held a convention of their own and formed the national Progressive party, which nominated Roosevelt for President and Hiram Johnson of Cal-

fornia for Vice-President. The Democratic candidates, Woodrow Wilson and Thomas R. Marshall, were elected by a plurality of more than 2,000,000 votes.

Wilson's Administration. Immediately after his inauguration President Wilson called Congress in special session to revise the tariff; the Underwood-Simmons Tariff Act was the result. Other important legislation included the Federal Reserve Act of 1913, establishing the Federal Reserve Banks, the Clayton Anti-Trust Act, the Trade Commission Act, and the repeal of the clause exempting American ships from paying toll for passing through the Panama Canal, in 1914. The opening of the Panama Canal to commerce, the international expositions at San Francisco and San Diego, Calif., the Bryan arbitration treaties with most of the world's civilized nations, and the proclamation of the seventeenth amendment to the Constitution were other important events of Wilson's first term.

Foreign relations occupied the attention of the President and of Congress to an unusual extent. During Taft's administration a revolution occurred in Mexico. Madero, the President, was assassinated, and Huerta, who was considered responsible for Madero's death, had assumed the Presidency. Wilson refused to recognize Huerta, but maintained a strictly neutral policy towards Mexican affairs, notwithstanding many insults were offered to American citizens and the government of the United States.

Affairs came to a crisis in April 1914, when a number of marines from a United States warship stationed at Tampico were arrested by Huerta's soldiers, while they went ashore peaceably to purchase supplies. Rear-Admiral Mayo demanded the release of the men, an apology and a salute to the United States flag. Huerta refused to salute the flag, and the President applied to Congress for permission to employ the military and naval forces to enforce his demands. His request was granted, and United States forces occupied Vera Cruz. There was a strong demand for intervention, but the President continued his policy of "watchful waiting", in the belief that the forces under Carranza would soon overthrow Huerta, and thus they finally accomplished.

After Carranza became President, Villa, his chief aid in the overthrow of Huerta, rebelled and gained control over a number

of the northern states of Mexico. In 1916 Villa's forces made a number of marauding raids into Texas, Arizona and New Mexico, and a punitive expedition under command of General Pershing, in conjunction with the forces of Carranza, attempted to capture Villa, but he escaped to the mountains, and in course of time the United States force was withdrawn.

The embargoes and blockades established by the belligerent nations in the World War complicated American relations with these nations, especially with Great Britain and Germany, because of the effect of these measures upon American commerce. The sinking of the *Lusitania*, May 7, 1915, by a German submarine, came near severing diplomatic relations between the United States and Germany, but the Imperial Government made promises that partially satisfied the President, and the breach was avoided. Germany's acts aroused intense feeling against the country in the United States, and many Americans expected and desired war.

In the campaign of 1916 the nominees of the Republican party for President and Vice-President were Charles Evans Hughes of New York and Charles W. Fairbanks of Indiana. President Wilson and Vice-President Marshall were the Democratic nominees. The Republicans attacked the President's foreign policies, such as his "watchful waiting" in regard to Mexico and his long drawn-out diplomatic contest with Germany, and they opposed the economic theories of the Democrats. The Democrats asked for an endorsement of Wilson's record for constructive statesmanship in domestic affairs and approval of his forbearance and patience in the handling of intricate international problems. One of the rallying cries of the Democrats was "Wilson kept us out of war." The election was very close, for the country was plainly confused as to the exact attitude of both parties toward Germany. Wilson and Marshall secured 270 electoral votes and Hughes and Fairbanks 255. The Republicans carried the East and several Middle West states, the Democrats carried most of the West, part of the Middle West, and the South solidly. In general, the President ran ahead of his party, but the Democratic majority in Congress was considerably reduced.

The Approach of War. In spite of his record as a peace President, Wilson was forced to lead the country into the World

War early in his new administration. On January 31, 1917, the German government made known its decision to begin unrestricted submarine warfare. The President was informed that American ships of any kind whatsoever violating certain specified regulations would be sunk without warning. This decision was the culmination of a long series of insults on the part of Germany, including the indefensible activities of an unscrupulous and well-organized spy system.

With the approval of the majority of the people, the President on February 3 broke off diplomatic relations with Germany and handed Count Bernstorff, the German ambassador, his passports. After several weeks of uncertainty, during which German aggressions continued unchecked, the President (April 2, 1917) appeared before a special session of the Sixty-fifth Congress, and in a speech of moving eloquence asked that body to declare that a state of war existed between the Imperial German government and the United States. The next day the Foreign Affairs Committees of both houses agreed upon a resolution formally declaring this fact. On April 4 the Senate passed the resolution by a vote of 86 to 5 and the House took similar action on April 6 by a vote of 373 to 50. On the afternoon of that day the resolution was signed by the President.

In the World War. Measures relating to the prosecution of the war were given immediate consideration. As emergencies arose, laws conferring extraordinary powers upon the President, providing for regulating the distribution of food and fuel, placing the operation of the railroads and finally of the telegraph and telephone lines under control of the government, were passed. Regardless of party, Congress and the nation supported the President in the prosecution of the war. Taxes were increased, and five government loans aggregating over \$19,000,000,000 were authorized and oversubscribed. Never before had a nation accomplished a task of such magnitude within the allotted time as did the United States in prosecuting the war with Germany.

At the declaration of war America had an army of less than 200,000 men. The nation was insufficiently supplied with arms, munitions and other equipment for a large army, and was without sufficient ships for transporting men and supplies to Europe. Through the cooperation and help of its

Outline on the United States

- I. LOCATION AND EXTENT
 - (a) Latitude
 - (b) Longitude
 - (c) Boundaries
 - (d) Area
 - (e) Comparison with other countries
- II. SURFACE AND DRAINKAGE
 - (a) Atlantic slope
 - (b) Appalachian highlands
 - (c) Great central plain
 - (d) Rocky Mountain highlands
 - (e) Pacific slope
 - (f) River systems
 - (g) Lakes
- III. CLIMATE
 - (a) Conditions expected, due to latitude
 - (b) Changes wrought by physical conditions
 - (c) Average temperature in various sections
 - (d) Average rainfall in various sections
 - (e) Need for irrigation
- IV. INDUSTRIES
 - (a) Mineral resources
 - (1) Where each is found
 - (2) Annual output and value
 - (3) States leading in production
 - (b) Agricultural products
 - (1) Cereals
 - (2) Fruits
 - (3) Market gardening
 - (4) Live stock and dairy products
 - (c) Manufactures
 - (1) Natural locations of districts
 - (2) Leading industries
 - (a) Iron and steel
 - (b) Textiles
 - (c) Boots and shoes
 - (d) Others of note
 - (e) Rank with other nations in production
 - (d) Commerce
 - (1) Domestic commerce
 - (a) By rail
 - (b) By water
 - (c) Coasting trade
 - (2) Foreign commerce
 - (a) Leading countries included in
 - (b) Exports and imports
 - (c) Principal countries engaged in carrying trade
- V. POPULATION
 - (a) Per cent of annual increase
 - (b) Center and density of population
 - (c) Comparative growth of cities and rural communities
 - (d) Immigration
- VI. GOVERNMENT
 - (a) General character
 - (b) Departments
 - (1) Executive
 - (a) President
 - (b) Vice-President
 - (2) Legislative
 - (a) Congress
 - (1) Senate
 - (2) House of Representatives
 - (3) Judicial
 - (a) Supreme Court
 - (b) Inferior courts
 - (1) Circuit courts
 - (2) District courts
 - (3) Courts of appeals
 - (c) State governments
 - (d) Government of dependencies
 - (e) Territories
 - VII. EDUCATION IN UNITED STATES
 - VIII. CITIES
 - (a) List of twenty-five largest
 - IX. HISTORY
 - (a) Periods
 - (1) Discovery and exploration
 - (2) Colonization
 - (3) Development of colonies
 - (4) War for independence
 - (5) Organisation of republics
 - (6) National growth

- (a) Development of resources
- (b) Annexation of territory
- (7) Mexican war
- (8) Slavery issue
- (9) Civil war
- (10) Reconstruction
- (11) Industrial progress
- (12) Spanish-American war
- (13) World War
- (14) Prohibition era
- (15) Stock-market crash
- (16) Bank failures
- (17) "New Deal" Policies

Questions on the United States

How does the United States compare in area with the other great countries of the world?

What change does a ship have to make in its dates in going from San Francisco to the Philippine Islands?

What geographic conditions exert the greatest influence upon human development?

What effect does the geographic position of the United States have upon her industrial development?

How does this location affect her relations to other countries?

Why were the English colonies confined to a narrow strip of land along the Atlantic Coast?

What is the most remarkable feature of the boundary line between the United States and Canada?

Why is the Atlantic coast line so much longer than that on the Pacific?

Which coast has the larger number of good harbors? Why?

What is the Fall Line? Why is it so called?

What part of the United States is the greatest agricultural region in the world?

What conditions have made it so?

Account for the location and growth of the following cities: New York, Chicago, Galveston, Seattle.

How many railroads extend across the United States from the Mississippi River to the Pacific Coast?

What effect have these so-called trans-

continental lines had upon the development of the country west of the Mississippi River?

How does the Constitution of the United States differ from the Articles of Confederation?

What political party supported the ratification of the Constitution? From what circumstance was this party named?

What American inventions have exerted the greatest influence upon the industries and commerce of the world?

What regions in the United States are widely known for their scenery?

What has the National government done to preserve these regions for the people?

What island possession of the United States is about two-thirds the area of Connecticut? How does it compare with Connecticut in population?

From what nations did the United States receive the largest number of immigrants in the years just preceding the World War?

What effect did the World War have upon immigration?

How do you account for the rapid growth of cities since 1890?

What effect did the entrance of the United States into the World War have upon the American merchant marine?

What precedents of long standing did President Wilson set aside?

Why does not the United States have a national system of education?

How many hours apart by air are New York and Los Angeles?

How many Americans were killed in the World War? How many died of disease? How many were wounded?

How important are the new oil fields in Texas?

What cities in the United States are almost directly north of the city of Panama, at the western terminus of the Panama Canal?

What is the official status of child labor in the United States?

What is the status of Porto Rico?

What is the "Galveston plan" in the government of cities?

allies, the unstinted devotion and loyalty of the American people and a speeding up of all war activities, the United States placed on the battlefields of France over 2,225,000 soldiers, trained and equipped, including needed men back of the lines. The American army played an important part in the operations of the summer of 1918, and contributed materially to bringing about an armistice on November 11, 1918. (For a full account of the nation's war activities, see the article **World War**.)

The Way to Peace. President Wilson had, during the war, issued a statement summarizing the objects for which America was fighting. These were grouped in fourteen paragraphs, the last one calling for a general association of nations. He led an American delegation to the peace conference in Paris in 1919. The conference finally drafted treaties between the warring nations, including the establishment of a league of nations. President Wilson submitted the treaty to the United States Senate in May, 1919, but the Senate refused to ratify it, and it was not until 1921 that separate treaties were made with Germany and its allies.

Constitutional Amendments. The eighteenth (prohibition) amendment to the Constitution, was ratified by the States and became effective January 16, 1920. The nineteenth amendment, extending suffrage rights to women, was ratified in 1920. The twentieth amendment, changing the time for sessions of Congress and inauguration of the President, was ratified in 1933. The twenty-first amendment, repealing the eighteenth, was ratified in 1933.

Later Events. In 1920 Warren G. Harding was elected President and Calvin Coolidge Vice President. Important events in Harding's administration were the Limitation of Arms Conference in Washington, which resulted in an agreement for a naval holiday, a law to restrict immigration, the enactment of a budget law, and an extension of the program of aid for veterans of the World War. President Harding died in 1923, and was succeeded as President by Vice President Coolidge. (See **HARDING, WARREN G.**)

The Coolidge administration was a period of peace and recovery from the effects of war. The budget system was continued, taxes were reduced and greater economy was exercised in government affairs. Congress passed a new income tax law, and passed a soldiers'

bonus law over the President's veto. (See **COOLIDGE, CALVIN**)

In 1928, Herbert Hoover, Secretary of Commerce since 1920, was elected President by a record popular vote. To meet the demands of a depressed agriculture President Hoover advocated measures for farm relief. The Smoot-Hawley tariff act was passed in 1930; it increased duties on many farm products. To aid world recovery, President Hoover, in 1931, presented a plan, which was adopted, for a moratorium of one year on the payment of war debts. For other events in this administration, see **HOOVER, HERBERT**.

A severe economic and industrial depression which developed during the last years of the Hoover administration resulted in the victory of the Democratic ticket in the general election of 1932. Hoover was defeated for reelection, and Franklin D. Roosevelt was elected President by an overwhelming vote. At the outset of his administration a banking crisis was promptly met by Congress, which invested the President with power to regulate transactions in credit, currency, and other banking functions. Within a few short weeks measures were undertaken providing for unemployment relief, economy in government expenditures, farm relief, a national recovery act, designed to regulate industry, reduce hours of labor and increase wages, was passed, but in 1935 declared largely unconstitutional. The President was given power to enforce the new laws and regulations. An embargo on gold export took the country off the gold standard and resulted in inflation of the currency and higher prices.

Related Articles. At the end of each state article the reader will find listed the names of the cities, mountains, lakes and rivers of the region under discussion, as well as important historical events connected with the development of each state. There are other important lists following the articles on Agriculture, Education, and the different wars in which America has engaged, to all of which the reader is referred. Below are various other topics which will help one to secure detailed information on the subject.

PHYSICAL FEATURES

Allied Mountains	Niagara Falls and
Appalachian Moun- tains	River
Canyon	Ohio River
Cascade Range	Palisades
Cascades Range	Parks, National
Colorado, Grand	Piedmont Region
Colombia River	Rocky Mountains
Glacier National Park	Royal Gorge
Great Lakes	Saint Lawrence River
Mammoth Cave	Sierra Nevada Moun- tains
Mississippi River	Yellowstone National
Missouri River	Park
Natural Bridge	Yosemite National Park

INDUSTRY AND PRODUCTS	
Agriculture	Irrigation
Automobile	Pew
Bailey	Leather
Bookbinding	Lumber
Boots and Shoes	Meat Packing
Brick and Brick-laying	Natural Gas
Coal	Oats
Copper	Paper
Corn	Petroleum
Cotton	Potatoes
Cotton Gin	Poultry
Dairying	Printing
Dry Farming	Salt
Fish and Fisheries	Silver
Forests and Forestry	Steel
Fur and Fur Trade	Textiles
Gold	Tobacco
Horticulture	Wheat
Iron	Wine
TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION	
Cable, Submarine	Roads and Streets
Canal (with list)	Telephone
Railroad	Telegraph
OUTLAWRY POSSESSIONS	
Alaska	Porto Rico
Guan	Samoa
Hawaii	Virgin Islands of
Philippine Islands	the United States
PRESIDENTS	
See President of the United States	
STATESMEN, MILITARY LEADERS ETC.	
See Biography	
GOVERNMENT AND HISTORY	
Alabama, The	Louisiana Purchase
Allen and Sedition Laws	Mexican War
Black Hawk	Missouri Compromise
Boston Massacre	Monroe Doctrine
Boston Tea Party	Montgomery Boulders
Burr Aaron	National League of
Chesapeake, The	Navigation Acts
Clayton-Bulwer Treaty	Non-Intercourse Act
Confederation, Articles of	Northwest Territory
Congress	Nomination
Constitution of the United States	Ordnances of 1777
Carpetbaggers	Ottoman Abdül Mecid
Commodore	Palmerston
Declaration of Independence	Political Parties in the United States
Electoral College	Prohibition
Electoral Commission	Portuguese
Emancipation Proclamation	Representatives, House of
Embargo	Révolutionary War
Erie the Red	Senate
French and Indian Wars	Silvers
Genet, Edmon Hay-Pauncefote Treaty	Spanish-American War
Indiana, American Jay Treaty	Squatter Sovereignty, State Route
Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions	Supreme Court
Ku-Klux Klan	Tariff
Lecompton Constitution	Versailles Treaty of
UNITED STATES STEEL CORPORATION	
THE UNITED STATES STEEL CORPORATION, the largest business enterprise in the world, was organized in 1901, by the consolidation of a number of large corporations engaged in the manufacture of iron and steel. These included the Carnegie, the Federal Steel, the American Steel and Wire, the National Steel, the National Tube and the American Tin Plate companies. The United States Steel Corporation makes more steel than all of Great Britain or Germany,	

and one-fourth of the total amount made in all the countries of the world. Many of the employees have become stockholders, and the corporation has a commendable record in its dealings with its great army of workmen. In 1911 the United States government brought suit for the dissolution of the corporation on grounds of violating the Sherman Anti-Trust Law, in 1915 the courts sustained the corporation and an appeal was taken to the Supreme Court. This court decided that the corporation need not be dissolved.

The capital of the corporation is over \$1,000,000,000, its gross revenues sometimes have exceeded a million dollars a day.

UNIVERSALISTS, a religious body whose distinctive belief is that all men will ultimately be saved, in other words, that eternal progress is the lot of every created soul. Thus, they claim, is in harmony with the teachings of Jesus and early interpretations of the Bible, as well as with science and philosophy. As a faith universalism has a place in Christian thought far beyond the confines of the organized body, which was established late in the eighteenth century in Massachusetts by an English clergyman, John Murray. There are now about 55,000 Universalists in the United States and 2,000 in Canada.

UNIVERSAL LANGUAGE, a proposed medium of communication, for the use of all peoples of the earth which have commercial intercourse with each other. There have been two unsuccessful efforts in this direction within recent years, Esperanto and Volapuk (which see).

UNIVERSE, *universe*, a term referring to all created things, embracing everything included in space, planets, suns, stars, considered as an orderly system. Man's idea of the universe has been an expanding one. At first he considered the earth the center about which sun, moon and stars revolved. Then he discovered that earth, asteroids and planets revolve about the sun and thought of our solar system as the universe. Now he knows that the system of which our earth is a part is but one among the millions whirling majestically in the immensity of space. The universe in its vastness is beyond the power of the mind to conceive.

Related Articles Consult the following titles for additional information
 Astronomy Planet
 Earth Stars
 Moon Solar System
 Nebular Hypothesis Sun



UNIVERSITY, an institution for advanced learning or for the examination of students who have completed specified courses in the higher branches. Universities are maintained in nearly all countries, and they confer degrees which receive universal recognition. A study of the organization of the universities of different countries shows that there are some variations in plan and spirit, but everywhere the term *university* implies a greater number of departments and courses of study than does *college* (which see).

Some universities and colleges with continuous existence since they were founded are among the oldest institutions of man. In the American Union, Harvard (1636), William and Mary (1693), Yale (1701), Moravian Seminary and College for Women (1742), Princeton (1746), University of Pennsylvania (1749), Washington and Lee (1749), Columbia, for many years King's College (1754), Brown University, (1764), Dartmouth (1769), Hampton-Sydney (1775), are older than the United States.

It is believed that the oldest university in the world with a continuous existence is El Azhar, in Cairo, Egypt, it was founded in 972 of the Christian Era, or 361 by Mohammedan calculation. The University of Pavia, Italy, was founded by Lothair, grandson of Charlemagne, in 825, but its history has not been continuous. The University of Bologna, Italy, was organized as a body of students in 1088, it reverted to the standard type in 1200. The oldest university in the New World is still in operation at Lima, Peru, dating from 1551.

In the United States in the United States the term *university* has been used indiscriminately and is sometimes applied to degree-conferring institutions regardless of their provision for graduate work. Moreover, many schools established in the newer states, either by private or denominational enterprises, have been styled universities when they are really colleges offering courses given in the undergraduate department of the true university.

A university maintains a college of liberal arts, and faculties of law, medicine, engineering, agriculture, journalism, etc. In the universities of highest standard students entering the professional departments are required to have two or more years of college work.

According to the plan upon which they have been established, American universities can be grouped into the following classes:

(1) Those which have developed from older colleges, such as Harvard, Yale, Pennsylvania and Princeton.

(2) Those that have been established by act of legislature and are known as state universities, such as the universities of Michigan, Minnesota, Wisconsin and Illinois.

(3) Those that have been established by benefactions, such as Johns Hopkins and Cornell.

(4) Those established under the auspices of some religious denomination, such as the Catholic University, at Washington, the University of Chicago, and Northwestern University, at Evanston and Chicago.

All of these institutions maintain undergraduate, or college, departments, and in some of the newer states the state university is under the necessity of maintaining a preparatory school.

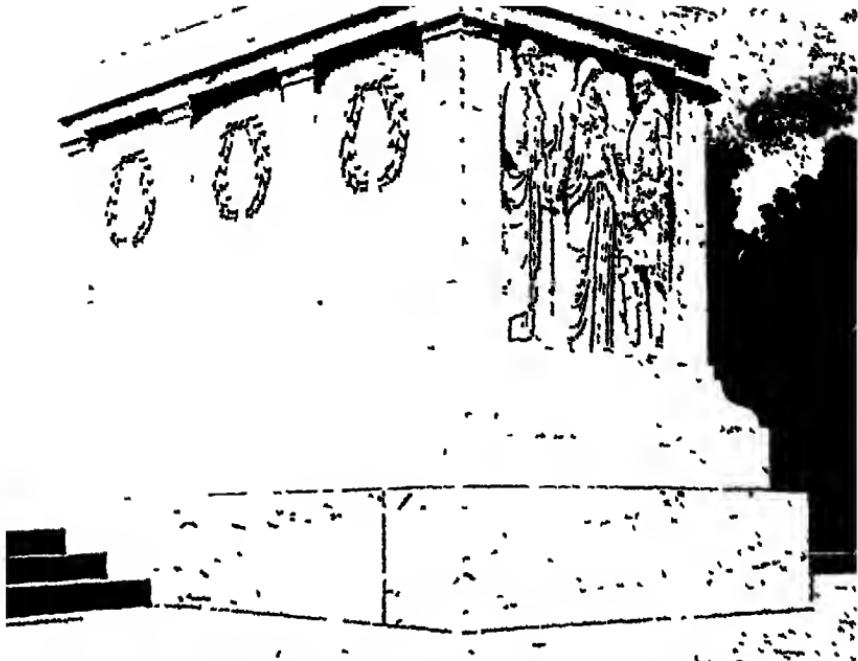
In Canada. Provincial and endowed universities and colleges are maintained in the Dominion in large numbers. The universities of British Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan and Manitoba correspond in a general way to the American state universities. In Ontario the University of Toronto is at the head of the school system. In Quebec the two leading universities, McGill and Laval, are at the head of the Protestant and Catholic schools, respectively.

For more detailed information, consult the articles on the various institutions and provinces.

Related Articles. The most important universities of the world are described in these volumes under their separate headings. They are listed at the end of the article Education. Each of the American state universities is given separate treatment in alphabetical order.

UNIVERSITY EXTENSION, a movement for extending the means of a higher education to persons of all classes, by a system of lectures and instruction, carried on by instructors of an established university. University extension originated with Cambridge University, England, in 1872, and it was taken up by the University of Oxford in 1886.

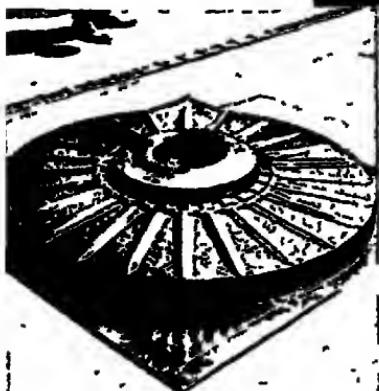
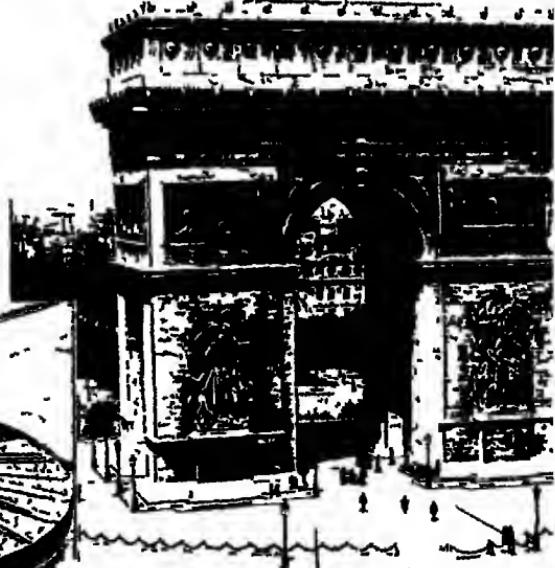
In the United States the movement was



Arling. Gallows

TO THE "UNKNOWN SOLDIER"

Above The tomb of America's Unknown Soldier, in Arlington National Cemetery, overlooking Washington. Below The tomb of the French Unknown is in Paris, below the pavement under the Arch of Triumph, at left is shown the Eternal Flame that burns above the grave



systematically started by Doctor Melville Dewey in 1883. At that time Doctor Dewey was chief librarian of Columbia University, and he laid before the regents of the University of the State of New York a plan for university extension, in connection with public libraries. Two years later a committee of the New York colleges and universities urged the regents to establish such a system of teaching under state supervision, and in 1891 a bill passed the legislature, appropriating \$10,000 for the expenses of organizing the movement. Previous to this, some extension work had been done by the professors of Johns Hopkins University, who, however, conducted it as an individual enterprise, and in 1891 the University of Pennsylvania organized a corps of lecturers, who were to lecture on literature, history, sociology and science in the surrounding towns, wherever local organizations for the study of any of these subjects could be formed. From these beginnings the larger universities took up the work, and it gradually extended over the country. The most successful work has been done by the universities of Pennsylvania, Cornell, Harvard, Yale, Chicago and Wisconsin.

The plan includes (1) the arrangement of lecture study courses with syllabi, by the faculties of the university, (2) the organization of local centers, these centers to include people who are interested in pursuing some one of the lecture courses, they decide upon the subject to be studied and engage the lecturer, whose salary and traveling expenses are paid by the center, (3) the lecture, with studies conducted either before or after it, the lecturer carrying on a quiz, in which he gives opportunity for free discussion, asking and answering questions, (4) traveling libraries, which are sent to the different centers, (5) the preparation of papers by members of the center, these papers being read and graded by the lecturer, (6) the giving of credits by the university, for satisfactory completion of the work. These credits are of limited value to those who are seeking degrees. Agricultural colleges in some states have extension departments which render very practical assistance to the farmer and his family. The extension department of the University of Wisconsin is intended to cover practically all lines of industry in the state. See CHAUTAUQUA INSTITUTION.

UNKNOWN SOLDIER TOMBS After the World War, national commissions sought to identify and give burial in special war cemeteries to the honored dead of the allied nations. It was found impossible to identify or to locate the remains of many thousands of these. A sentimental gesture to honor collectively the unknown dead from each of the principal allied countries brought the highest patriotic response from all the people.

The United States took the body of an unidentified soldier of the American armies from his nameless grave in France, brought it home on a warship, and buried it impressively in Arlington National Cemetery. The body of a British unknown was solemnly interred within the precincts of Westminster Abbey. France's unknown hero was taken to Paris and buried beneath the Arc de Triomphe (Arch of Triumph), where burns an everlasting flame. Belgium selected one of its unknown dead and gave him a resting place in Brussels, at the base of the Colonnade of the Congress. Italy's selection for the honor of representing all of that country's unknown dead lies beneath a hilltop monument in Rome.

UTIAS, a tree belonging to the same family as the mulberry and breadfruit, common in the forests of Java and the Philippine Islands. The exaggerated stories formerly current concerning the deadly exhalations of this plant are now believed to have their origin in the presence of volcanic gases in the Javanese valleys. The sap, however, is poisonous and forms the principal element in a mixture used by the natives for tipping their arrowheads. The fiber of the bark is made into a kind of cloth.

URAL MOUNTAINS, a low mountain range in Russia extending southward from the Arctic Ocean, approximately along the 60th meridian of east longitude, and forming a portion of the boundary between Europe and Asia. The highest elevations are in the northern and southern sections and exceed 5,000 feet. The central section is low, and through a pass in this part of the range the Trans-Siberian Railway reaches Siberia. The lower slopes are covered with forests of evergreens, birch and beech. The Central Urals are rich in minerals, which include gold, silver, copper, iron, lead, zinc and platinum. There are also large deposits of coal.

URAL RIVER, a river of Russia, rising on the eastern slope of the Ural Mountains and flowing southward a distance of 1,400 miles into the Caspian Sea. Its chief tributaries are the Kizil and the Sak-Mara from the west, and the Sunduk, the Or and the Ilek from the east. Rafting in the Ural basin is slight, and the river is shallow and unnavigable, except during the period of high water.

URANIA, in Greek mythology, the muse of astronomy, usually represented as holding in her left hand a celestial globe and in her right a staff or compass.

URANIUM, a rare, silvery-white metallic element, found chiefly as an oxide in pitch-blende. It is the source of uranium yellow, used for painting on glass and porcelain, and in making the fluorescent yellow uranium glass. With its compounds, uranium is radioactive, undergoing slow disintegration with the formation of a new element, known as uranium X. See RADIACTIVITY.

URANUS, the seventh planet from the sun, discovered by Sir William Herschel in 1781 and first called *Georgeus Sidus*, in honor of George III., and afterwards *Herschel*, in honor of the discoverer. Both these names falling into disuse, the name *Uranus*, suggested by Bode, was adopted. Its mean distance from the sun is more than 1,750,000,000 miles. The length of its year is equal to about eighty-four of our years, the length of its day is thought to be about ten hours. Its mean diameter is estimated at about 33,000 miles. Its volume is about seventy-four times that of the earth, but its mean density is so much less that the mass of Uranus is only about twelve and one-half times as great as that of the earth.

Uranus has four satellites, which differ from those of all but one of the other planets, in that their orbits are nearly perpendicular to that of the planet, while the satellites of the other planets revolve in nearly the same plane as the planet to which they belong. Through the telescope, Uranus is merely a pale, greenish disk, with no certain markings, but the spectroscope seems to indicate that it differs materially from the other planets in composition. To the naked eye it appears like a star of the sixth magnitude. See PLANET.

URANUS, in Greek mythology, the husband of Gaea, the earth, and father of her children, the Titans and Cyclopes. Uranus

hated his children and confined them in Tartarus, but on the instigation of Gaea, Saturn, the youngest of the Titans, overthrew and dethroned him. From the part of his blood which fell upon the earth sprang Gigantes, father of the giants, and from the part which fell into the sea sprang the goddess Aphrodite.

URBAN, the name of eight Roman Popes, three of whom made notable contribution to history.

Urban I. SAINT, was bishop of Rome from 312 to 326. He was a strong pontiff, setting himself firmly against the schismatic movement of Hippolytus, which he kept in check.

Urban II. was Pope from 1088 to 1099. He successfully prosecuted the struggle of the Papacy against Henry IV., and in 1094 he excommunicated Philip I of France for his matrimonial infidelity. In 1095 he presided at the famous Council of Clermont, which gave the impulse to the Crusades. He died before the success of the First Crusade, which he had organized.

Urban VIII. Pope from 1623 to 1644, supported Richelieu's policy against Austria and Spain. He was the founder of the College of Propaganda and was a patron of Galileo.

URBAN'A, ILL., the county seat of Champaign County, 123 miles nearly south of Chicago, on the Wabash, the Cleveland, Cincinnati, Chicago & Saint Louis railroads. It is near Champaign, and the state university is situated between the two cities (see ILLINOIS, UNIVERSITY OF). The surrounding region is agricultural and contains valuable deposits of fire clay. The city has railroad shops, brick works, a lawnmower and iron novelty factories. Some of the prominent structures are the courthouse, the municipal building, the Masonic Temple, a Y. M. C. A. building, Thornburn High School, the Champaign County Teachers' and Pupils' Library and the Illinois State Laboratory and Natural History Library. Urbana was settled in 1824 and was chartered as a city in 1860. Population, 1920, 10,244, in 1930, 18,060, a gain of 30 per cent.

URINE, *ur'-in*, the fluid waste separated from the blood by the kidneys. It carries out of the system many of the wornout tissues, especially the nitrogenous waste. Its composition varies in different animals. Human urine, of a healthy individual, is a clear, amber-colored fluid, slightly acid, and it weighs one and fifteen-thousandths to one and twenty-five thousandths times as much as water. The average quantity discharged in

twenty-four hours is about two and a half pints, but the amount varies greatly, being diminished during excessive perspiration, thirst and fever, and being increased by cold, by drinking large quantities of water, by exercise, by certain foods, as salt or sugar, and by certain drugs. The principal solid and the most important ingredient found in urine is urea, the amount of which varies, being greater when animal food is used freely than when the diet is vegetable. The condition of the urine is an index to the state of health, and physicians often analyze it as a part of their diagnosis. The presence of albumin indicates Bright's disease, and the presence of sugar indicates diabetes.

URSA MAJOR and **URSA MINOR** (greater bear and lesser bear), two constellations of the northern hemisphere always visible and wheeling about the Polar Star, which at present is that star in the extremity of the little bear's tail. In the larger constellation are seven bright stars which outline the Great Dipper.

UR'SO, CAMILLA (1842-1902), a famous violinist, born in Nantes, France, who came to America at the age of ten. She appeared in concert with immense success, becoming the most noted female violinist in the world.

URSULA, SAINT, a legendary saint and martyr in the Roman Catholic Church, whose story has been given various forms. She is supposed to have suffered death about the year 237. By repute the daughter of a British king, she was desired by the son of another king for his wife; if his suit were denied, her father's lands would be devastated. Ursula had vowed to remain a virgin, so she succeeded in securing a three-years' delay before deciding. During this time she was to visit holy places, and she chose 11,000 virgins to accompany her. When Cologne was reached in a voyage down the Rhine the Huns murdered all of them, a church was later built over their remains.

URSULINES, *ur'sü lēz*, or **NUNS OF SAINT URSULA**, a sisterhood founded by Saint Angela Merici, at Brescia, Italy, in 1537, especially for the education of girls. They had many houses in France during the seventeenth century. The Canadian Ursulines date from 1689, the Irish, from 1771. There are now four houses in Ireland, four in England and twenty-four in the United States, with thousands of pupils. The whole number is 800 convents and 7,000 nuns.



Theater in Montevideo

URUGUAY, *ü'rú gwá*, or *oo'rú gwá*, officially THE EASTERN REPUBLIC OF URUGUAY, is the smallest republic of South America. It is separated from Argentina on the west of the Uruguay River, and is bounded on the northeast and east by Brazil, the great estuary of the Rio de La Plata washes its southern shore. The country is nearly triangular in outline, its greatest length and breadth, 350 miles, are about equal, its area is 72,153 square miles, making it about one-half the size of Montana, or equal to the combined areas of North Dakota and Delaware. Population, 1934, 1,933,234.

The People The population is about equally divided between the white and colored peoples, the latter including Paraguayan Indians, or Guaranis, and mixed breeds. Spaniards and Italians constitute the great majority of the whites, though the Germans and French are numerous. The speech, manners and customs are Spanish. The color line is drawn in the names of the political parties which are designated as *Blancos* and *Colorados* (whites and colored), but in political practice these names have lost much of their former significance. The chief cities are Montevideo (which see), the capital, with a population of 667,212, 1934; Paysandú, on the Uruguay River; Salto, Mercedes, San José, Agosto and Maldonado.

The Roman Catholic Church has by far the largest number of adherents, and until 1916 it was the state Church. In that year the state Church was abolished, and all religious denominations were placed on an equal footing before the government.

Surface and Drainage In the north and west there are ranges of low mountains, or hills, which attain an altitude of about 3,000 feet, and along the Uruguay River are tablelands, somewhat higher than those in Argentina, but the southeastern part of the country is low and marshy, and the interior is composed of rolling plains. The chief rivers are the Uruguay, which forms the western boundary, and its largest tributary, the Negro, which flows across the country in a southwesterly direction, dividing it into

two nearly equal parts. Lake Merim, situated on the northeastern border, is partly in Uruguay and partly in Brazil. The plains in the interior and the hills in the north and northwest are covered with dense forests, and the southeastern portion of the country is overgrown with grass.

Resources and Industries. The chief minerals are iron, zinc, lead, antimony, sulphur and coal, and some gold has been found. There are also quarries of marble and other building stone, but the mineral resources of the country have not been extensively exploited. The rich soil and salubrious climate, accompanied by an abundance of moisture, make the country favorable for agriculture, yet only small areas are under tillage. The chief crops are wheat, corn, barley, millet, oats, rye and flaxseed. Stockraising is the most important industry of the country, and large numbers of horses, mules, cattle and sheep are reared.

There is a yearly average of more than 7,250,000 cattle and about 21,000,000 sheep. Wool and meat are the principal exports.

Transportation and Trade. Many of the rivers are navigable, and are used for inland transportation. There are over 1,700 miles of railway connecting the chief centers of trade within the country with those of Argentina, besides 170 miles of tramways. In proportion to its size, Uruguay has more miles of good roads than most other South American countries. All the important towns have telegraph and telephone service.

The imports consist of foodstuffs, cotton and woolen goods, clothing, machinery and other manufactured products. The exports include meats, hides, tallow, cattle, wool and a few other agricultural products.

Education. The University of Uruguay, at Montevideo, is the leading educational institution. It has departments of law, medicine, mathematics, agriculture, commerce, social service and veterinary science. There are also a preparatory school and other institutions for secondary education and normal schools for both sexes. Its library and museum are of considerable value. The public schools are poor. There is a compulsory education law, but it is not enforced, and the proportion of illiteracy is very large.

Government and History. Uruguay has a republican form of government, at the head of which is a President. This official was originally elected by the national legislative

body, consisting of a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies. In 1919 a new constitution went into effect, providing for the popular election of the President and the Council of Administration of nine members, which appoints the following members of the President's Cabinet: the Ministers of Industries and Labor, Public Instruction, Finance and Public Works. The President appoints the Ministers of Foreign Affairs, Interior, Army and Marine. The Council prepares the budget, collects the taxes, may initiate new laws, arranges loans and provides for the increase or reduction of the national currency.

Uruguay was a source of dispute between Spain and Portugal in early times, but finally became a Spanish possession, forming a part of the vice-royalty of Buenos Aires. Later Brazil attempted to enforce the Portuguese claim, and for a short time occupied the country, but in 1828 Uruguay became independent. During the World War the country severed relations with Germany.

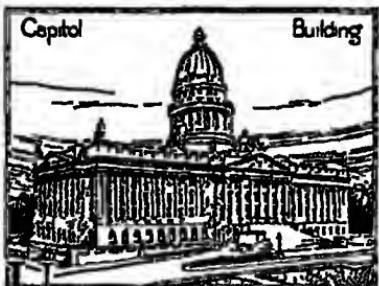
Uruguay River. A river of South America, which rises in the southeastern part of Brazil, flows westward, then southward, and enters the estuary of the Rio de la Plata. It forms a part of the boundary between Brazil and Argentina and the entire boundary between Argentina and Uruguay. Its length is about 950 miles, and in the lower part of its course it is from six to nine miles wide. It is navigable for large vessels as far as Paysandu, about 150 miles, and for smaller vessels for 300 miles farther.

USURY. *u' shu' ry,* originally, money paid for the use of money, or interest, according to present usage, interest in excess of the legal rate. In most states a maximum rate of interest is fixed by law, and penalties of greater or less severity, imposed for charging a higher rate. The table below gives the legal rate of interest in each of the states, and also the rate permitted if both parties agree. See INTEREST.

STATES	Legal Rate		Con- tract Rate	STATES	Legal Rate		Con- tract Rate
	Per Cent	Per Cent			Per Cent	Per Cent	
Alabama	3	6	Florida	3	10		
Alaska	6	12	Georgia	7	3		
Arizona	6	8	Idaho	6	8		
Arkansas	6	10	Illinois	5	7		
California	7	12	Indiana	6	8		
Colorado	6	12	Iowa	6	6		
Connecticut	6	12	Kansas	6	10		
Delaware	6	8	Kentucky	6	6		
D. of Col.	6	6	Louisiana	5	2		

STATE	Legal Rate		STATE	Legal Rate	
	Per Cent	Per Cent		Per Cent	Per Cent
Maine	6	•	Ohio	6	2
Maryland	6	6	Oklahoma	6	10
Mass.	6	•	Oregon	6	10
Michigan	7	7	Penn.	6	6
Minnesota	6	3	R. Island	6	•
Mississippi	6	2	S. Carolina	7	2
Missouri	6	2	S. Dakota	6	2
Montana	6	•	Tennessee	6	6
Nebraska	7	9	Texas	6	10
Nevada	7	•	Utah	2	12
New Hampshire	6	•	Vermont	6	6
New Jersey	6	6	Virginia	6	6
New Mexico	6	10	Wash.	6	12
New York	6	6	W. Virginia	6	6
N. Carolina	6	6	Wisconsin	6	10
N. Dakota	3	3	Wyoming	7	19

*Any rate on which both parties may agree



UTAH, one of the Rocky Mountain states, originally settled by the Mormons. They called the territory which they had organized *Deseret*, a name meaning industry, as used in the Book of Mormon. Congress, however, refused to permit the use of this name, and the territory was organized under the present name, which is the designation of the Ute, or Utah, a tribe of Indians, and means *highlanders*. Because of the presence within its borders of the extensive salt lake so widely known, Utah is popularly, though not officially, called the *Salt Lake State*.

Location and Area. The state is bounded on the north by Idaho and Wyoming, on the east by Colorado and Wyoming, on the south by Arizona and on the west by Nevada. It has straight bounding lines on all sides, and is regularly oblong in shape, except in the northeastern corner, where the southwestern corner of Wyoming cuts off several square miles.

Having an area of 84,990 square miles, the state is the tenth in the Union in size, it is only 303 square miles larger than Minnesota,

and is almost exactly twice as large as the state of Virginia.

People and Cities. The population of Utah in 1920 was 449,396. By the 1930 census, the population was 507,847, giving it the rank of fortieth in the Union in number of inhabitants. The average density was 6.2 to the square mile, only six other States are less densely settled. A little less than ten per cent of the whole population is foreign born, the principal nationalities being English, Danish, Swedish, Greek, German, Italian, Scotch and Norwegian. There are about 2,570 Indians on reservations, and about 1,100 negroes.

About 85 per cent of the inhabitants are adherents of the Church of Latter Day Saints (Mormon), Roman Catholics, Methodists, Presbyterians are well represented, and other sects are found in small numbers.

About 58 per cent of the inhabitants live in municipalities having 2,500 population or more. The largest cities are Salt Lake City, the capital (140,267), Ogden (40,272), and Provo (14,766).

Surface and Drainage. The surface is greatly diversified, containing high mountains, broad, and valleys and desert plateaus. Near the middle of the northern boundary, the Wasatch Mountains enter the state and extend southward along the middle line, finally degenerating into plateaus. This is the principal mountain range of the state, and its position marks the highest land, from which, as a watershed, the streams flow eastward and westward, the former to the Colorado, the latter to sink in the Great Basin. Eastward from the Wasatch, along the northern boundary of Utah, stretches a broad, massive range, known as the Uintah.

Great Salt Lake, with its extraordinary percentage of saline matter in solution, is but the remnant of a vast body of fresh water, which once covered Western Utah. The principal stream of Eastern Utah is the Colorado. This is formed by the junction of Green River, which rises in the Wind River Mountains of Wyoming and the Grand, whose sources are in the snow fields on Long's Peak, in Colorado. The Green and the Colorado receive numerous branches from the Uintah and Wasatch ranges, among them the Uintah, the Price, the Fremont, the San Rafael and the Virgin. The scenery is varied, including fertile valleys, snow-capped mountains, the Great American Desert (an area as

large as Connecticut), deep canyons, dashing Cascades and the greatest natural bridges in the world. In the southern part are the Zion and Bryce Canyon National Parks. See PARKS, NATIONAL.

Climate. The mean annual temperature ranges from 48°, in the north, to 51°, in the south. The mean temperature at Frisco is 51°. The average rainfall is 16 inches. If the snow chances to fall early in the winter, it becomes compact, and the melting is retarded. A fall of snow late in the season lies loosely on the mountain sides, and the water reaches the valleys before the crops are ready to receive its full benefit.

Mineral Resources. Next to agriculture, mining is the chief industry. Utah has 210 useful minerals. Silver is found in nearly all the mountains, and Utah is second among the states in production. The gold product is over \$4,000,000. Utah ranks second in the production of copper and third in lead. Other important metals are iron and zinc. There are extensive coal fields in Emery, Carbon and Summit counties; the largest sulphur deposits in the world are in Millard and Washington counties, and a superior quality of onyx is found on the west shore of Utah Lake. Salt is mined in Juab County and is obtained from Great Salt Lake. Other mineral products are asphalt, building stone, mica, graphite and gypsum. The state also has a natural gas area.

Agriculture. The agricultural districts of the state are chiefly in the valleys immediately west of the Wasatch Mountains, in the Great Basin. Elsewhere, except in a few favored spots, the altitude or the insufficient water supply east of the Wasatch range, prevents successful farming. This vast area is used for grazing, and large herds of sheep and cattle are raised. Many sheep are exported, and the production of wool exceeded 17,000,000 pounds in 1933.

Irrigation in the Great Basin of Utah was the first important enterprise of the kind by Anglo-Saxons in the arid west. In 1847, the Mormon pioneers turned the waters of City Creek upon the parched soil of Salt Lake Valley, and now, out of 1,250,000 acres of improved land, over 1,000,000 acres are irrigated. The wheat, oats, barley, hay and rye are of superior quality, and the yield is large. In most localities the heights are too cool for successful corn-growing. Potatoes, beets and other vegetables are profitably

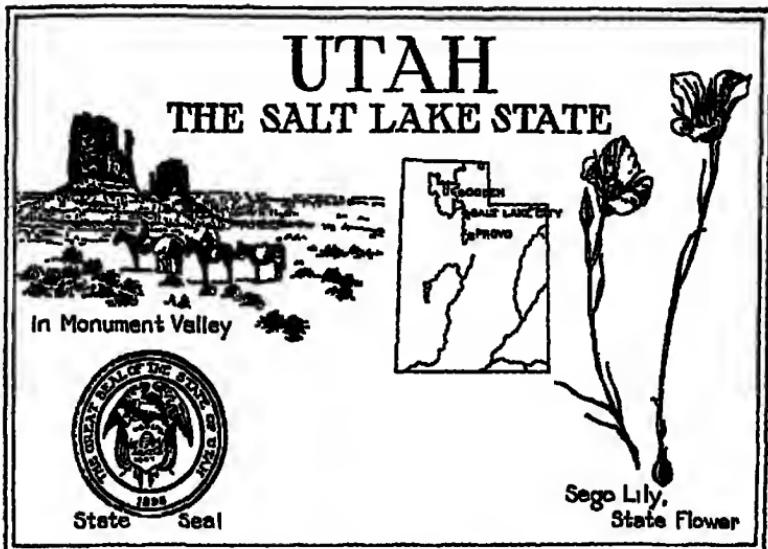
raised. Utah is the fourth state in the production of sugar beets. Fruits are abundant. Among these are apples, peaches, plums, apricots, cherries and grapes, and in the south, oranges, lemons and figs are grown.

Manufactures. Utah is rapidly forging ahead in industry, the larger cities being extensively engaged in both manufacturing and distributing activities. The industrial plants of Salt Lake City number 263. The leading manufacturing industry is the smelting and refining of copper and lead ores. Other industries, in the order of their importance, are the manufacture of beet sugar, flour and grist milling, construction and repair of railroad equipment, and preparation of salt.

Transportation. The state has railway communication with all the great cities, east and west. The principal roads are the Union Pacific, the Southern Pacific, the Denver & Rio Grande, the San Pedro, Los Angeles & Salt Lake and the Western Pacific. Short lines connect the mining towns with the principal cities. In all, the state has about 2,200 miles of railway lines. Utah has a considerable local commerce. The state exports, however, a large proportion of the products of the mines and ranges.

Government. The state senate has 23 members, the house of representatives, 60. The number of senators can never exceed thirty and the number of representatives cannot exceed three times, or fall below twice, the number of senators. Both senators and representatives are apportioned by districts, one-half of the senators being elected every two years, for a term of four years, and the representatives being elected for two years. The executive department consists of the governor, secretary of state, auditor, treasurer, attorney-general and superintendent of public instruction, elected for four years. The state courts comprise a supreme court, consisting of five judges, elected for ten years, and such inferior courts as may be established by law. The judges of the district courts are elected for four years. The state constitution provides for woman suffrage.

Education. The present educational system of Utah dates from 1890, when a superior grade of public schools was established by the legislature of the territory which superseded the more primitive pioneer educational facilities. High schools are sup-



ported in all of the larger towns and cities, and there is a state university at Salt Lake City, with which the state normal school is connected. The state agricultural college is at Logan, with experiment stations in the Saint George region and at Nephi. The Mormon Church maintains Brigham Young University at Provo, and numerous seminaries giving special religious instruction. Schools are also maintained by other denominations. Only four states show a better record for literacy than Utah.

Institutions. Penal and charitable institutions are under the control of boards appointed by the governor. They include an industrial school at Ogden, a hospital for the insane at Provo City, a school for the deaf and blind at Ogden, and a state penitentiary at Salt Lake City.

History. The first white visitors in proximity to Utah were the members of Coronado's expedition in 1540, but the territory was not settled for nearly 300 years. In 1824 Great Salt Lake was discovered by James Bridger, and soon afterwards trading posts were set up in its vicinity. The real history of Utah begins with the coming of the Mormons in 1847. In the following year the United States gained possession, under the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, and in 1849 a constitution for the "State of Deseret" was

adopted. Though Congress refused admission to the new state, it organized the Territory of Utah, including a much greater area than the state now has. Federal troops entered Utah in 1857-1858, due to misunderstandings and the inadequacy of communication facilities. Polygamy among the Mormons was viewed with disfavor by Congress, and a law making it a crime was passed in 1862, but was not seriously enforced for many years. Finally, twenty years later, the Edmunds bill, disfranchising polygamists and placing the territory under a communion of five men, was passed. Six separate efforts, between 1849 and 1887, were made to secure statehood, but none was successful, due to objections to the existence of polygamy in the territory. The Mormon Church declared in 1890 that it no longer countenanced polygamy. Finally, in 1895, a constitution was adopted, and the state was admitted to the Union a year later.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

CITIES	
Logan	Provo City
Orton	Salt Lake City
PHYSICAL FEATURES	
Colorado River	Uinta Mountains
Great Salt Lake	Utah Lake
UNCLASSIFIED	
Dry Farming	Polygamy
Irrigation	Young, Brigham
Mormons	

Items of Interest on Utah

The state motto of Utah is the word *Deseret*, meaning *industry*. Utah's flower emblem is the sego lily.

Some of the nation's beautiful national parks are in this state.

School attendance for thirty weeks annually is compulsory for children from eight to sixteen years, who live in large cities. Elsewhere the required attendance is for twenty weeks. There are about 650 public elementary schools and nearly fifty public high schools.

The constitution provides for the initiation of any desired legislation by the legal voters or such number of them as may be determined by law.

Among the points of scenic interest is a pulpit-shaped rock in Echo Canyon. It is said that Brigham Young preached in this pulpit his first sermon to the Mormon colonists.

In 1915 there was an uprising of the Indians on the Pine Ridge Reservation. To settle the difficulty General Hugh Scott was sent out by the government.

Four barrels of the water of Great Salt Lake will produce, after evaporation, nearly a barrel of salt.

Questions on Utah

What is peculiar about the boundaries of Utah?

Describe briefly the surface and drainage.

What artificial aids are necessary to agriculture in Utah?

What are the principal crops?

How does Utah rank as a producer of beet sugar?

How does Utah rank in the production of silver? Copper? Lead? Name two other important mineral products.

What are the principal commodities shipped to points outside the state?

What are the principal manufacturing industries?

What sensations do swimmers in Great Salt Lake experience?

In what year did the Mormons emigrate to Utah?

What can be said of the great natural bridges in the state?

UTAH, UNIVERSITY OF, a state university established at Salt Lake City in 1850, as the University of the State of Deseret. For years a weak school, it functioned feebly until 1867, owing to lack of funds. The present charter was secured in 1891, when a grant of sixty acres of land and a state appropriation of \$300,000 for buildings were made. At that time the present name was adopted. The university maintains a school of arts and science, a state school of mines and engineering, schools of education, medicine, law and commerce and finance, and the state normal school. The faculty has a membership of about 200, and the student enrollment is about 3,600. There is a library of over 120,000 volumes and 36,000 pamphlets. The legislature provides a state tax to insure a regular income.

UTAH LAKE, a fresh-water lake in the north-central part of Utah, about twenty-four miles in length and eight miles in width. It is situated in a valley bordered by mountains, and it discharges into Great Salt Lake through the Jordan River.

UTE, a tribe of Indians of the Shoshonean family, formerly scattered throughout New Mexico, Utah, Colorado and Nevada, where they carried on a relentless warfare with the Navajos. They were a restless tribe, living by hunting and fishing, but rarely engaging in agriculture. They are at present confined to an Indian reservation in Colorado, and number about 2,000.

UTICA, an ancient Phoenician city of North Africa, located on the Gulf of Tunis. Though subject to Carthage, it for a long time resisted that authority successfully, and was never conquered under Carthaginian rule. In the third Punic War Utica submitted to Rome, and after the fall of Carthage was made the capital of the province of Africa. It was at Utica that Cato killed himself, after Caesar's victory at Thapsus. The Arabs destroyed the city in the seventh century. It was excavated by the French engineer, Daux, in 1829.

UTICA, N. Y., the county seat of Oneida County, ninety-five miles northwest of Albany, on the Mohawk River, and the Erie Canal and on the New York Central, the Delaware, Lackawanna & Western, and the New York, Ontario & Western railroads. It is the gateway to the Adirondack region and a center for tourists. It has an elevation of about 500 feet above the sea, and

is laid out with wide streets. The city is famed for its magnificent old elms. Fine state roadways radiate in all directions.

There is a large public library, besides that of the Oneida Historical Society, and law, medical, Y. M. C. A. and Hebrew libraries. The Utica Catholic Academy, Assumption Academy, the New School and a number of other private schools are located here. An unusual number of charitable institutions have caused the place to be called the "City of Charities." They include the Saint Luke's Memorial, the Paxton and the General hospitals, a state hospital for the insane; Saint Elizabeth's Hospital and Home, the state Masonic Home and various homes for orphans, aged and homeless. The school buildings of the city are among the best in the state, and the educational standard is high. Other prominent structures are a county courthouse, two state armories, and a Federal building.

Utica has good transportation facilities, and is an important industrial center, with 300 plants. It ships large quantities of cheese and other dairy products, roses, fruit, live stock and manufactured goods. The principal manufactures are men's clothing, hosiery and knit goods, cotton and woolen goods, furnaces, machine shop and lumber products, farm implements, paints, fine extinguishers, automobile parts, cutlery and steel products.

During the French and Indian War a fort was erected on this site to control the fording place on the Mohawk. It was named in honor of Philip Schuyler. A settlement grew up and was known as Old Fort Schuyler until its incorporation as the village of Utica in 1798. The city was chartered in 1832. Population, 1920, 94,156; in 1880, 101,740; gain of 8 per cent.

UTILITARIANISM, a term given to that system of ethics and philosophy whose fundamental principle is that the standard of right and wrong is the happiness of mankind, that is, that an act is good only to the extent that it proves itself serviceable in promoting the welfare or happiness of society. This theory is of modern origin, having been first definitely stated by John Stuart Mill and accepted by such later philosophers as Spencer and Sir Leslie Stephen. However, it is the natural outgrowth of the philosophy of such men as Hume, Locke, Bentham and Hobbes. See **PHILOSOPHY**.

UTOPIA, from a Greek word meaning "no place," is an ideal country where all things are perfect. The term is taken from the title of a political romance written by Sir Thomas More, in 1516, describing the state of society on an imaginary island where all the property belonged to the commonwealth, to which every one contributed by his labor and from which he received his supplies. Its mild penal code was in striking contrast to that which prevailed at that period in England. The people had learned to tolerate diversity of opinion in religious matters. Promotion was according to merit, and the citizens rose through all the gradations of their existence, from form to form, as in a great public school. *Utopia* was published in Latin in 1516, and was later translated into English by Bishop Burnet. It attained a wide popularity, its name furnishing the familiar epithet *Utopian*, which is commonly applied to idealistic projects of reform in religion, government or society.

UTRECHT, *o' trēkt*, NETHERLANDS, capital of the province of the same name, situated on the Rhine, where it branches into the Old Rhine and the emerald Vecht. It lies twenty-three miles southeast of Amsterdam, and is the chief railway center of the Netherlands. It is strongly fortified, according to belief prior to 1914, for it was the outpost of defense for Amsterdam. The University of Utrecht, dating from early in the seventeenth century, is located here. Its library contains over 250,000 volumes. The city also has a number of learned societies, a museum of paintings by the old masters and an archiepiscopal museum, which contains a collection of sacred reliques. The Gothic Cathedral of Saint Martin, rising in the center of the city, is the most prominent edifice.

The principal industries are the manufacture of carpets, velvets, floor cloths, cottons, linens, sugars, chemicals, musical instruments and machinery. The trade is important. In this city, in 1579, the Union of Utrecht was formed, establishing the Dutch Republic. In 1713 the Peace of Utrecht was concluded here, terminating the War of the Spanish Succession. Population, 1933, 157,925.

UTRECHT, PEACE OF, a series of treaties agreed upon at Utrecht, between the years 1713 and 1715, by the powers that had been engaged in the War of the Spanish Succession. This was the most important political adjustment between the Peace of Westphalia

ha (1648) and the Congress of Vienna (1815)

By its provisions, Austria and Holland on the north, Prussia on the east and Savoy on the southwest were secured from French aggression. A treaty between France and England recognized the Hanoverian line of kings, engaged never to unite the crowns of France and Spain, and ceded to England Nova Scotia, Newfoundland and Hudson Bay and Strait Gibraltar and Minorca were ceded to England by Spain, which also transferred Naples, Milan, Sardinia and the Spanish Netherlands to Austria. The Dutch were allowed to garrison eight frontier towns in the Austrian Netherlands as protection against France, and were given important trade privileges. France surrendered Lorraine and certain cities on the right bank of the Rhine, retaining Alsace, with Strassburg. The Prussian king received confirmation of royal title and the Duke of Savoy was raised to kingly dignity. England received trade concessions which laid the basis of a lucrative slave trade with Spanish America.

It is from the Treaty of Utrecht that England dates its commercial and colonial expansion. See *SUCCESSION WARS*, subhead *War of the Spanish Succession*.

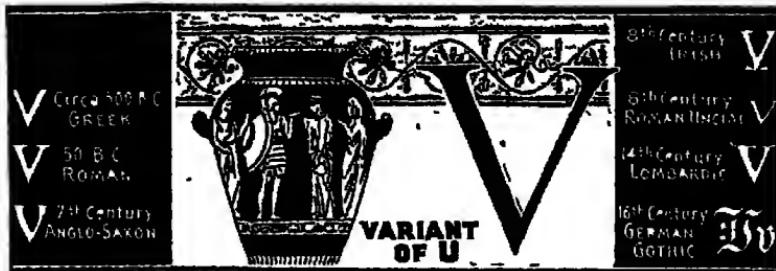
UZ, in the Old Testament, the scene of the story of Job, a region probably lying east or

southeast of Palestine, the exact location remaining undetermined.

UZBEK, a Soviet republic, since 1925 a member of the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics. It is located almost at the southwest corner of old Siberia, directly north of Afghanistan, and has an area estimated at 75,000 square miles. The most recent estimate of population is 4,447,800. Aksabad is the capital. Bokhara and Samarkand are the largest cities.

Agriculture is the principal industry, though irrigation is necessary, in this half-desert country every drop of water must be utilized. The great crop is cotton, and this product makes Uzbek of immense value to the Soviet government in Russia, for more than 40 per cent of the cotton mills of the Soviet Union draw their supplies of raw cotton from here. Uzbek also has cotton mills. There are many vineyards, industry is opening up silk culture, coal mining, and oil fields.

Uzbek has had a modern historical relation with Russia since about 1550, when Uzbekans enjoyed independence. Russian influence in time rendered it a vassal state, and under the later czars it was reduced to a deplorable condition. The country was free after the 1917 revolution, but its people soon found their future would be more secure if they joined the Soviet Union.



V, the twenty-second letter of the English alphabet, was used interchangeably with *u* in Latin, and in English until the seventeenth century. The sound of *v* is always the same, and the letter which is most closely allied to it is *f*, with which it is often interchanged in related languages. In English this close connection of the two letters is shown by the plural of such words as *wife*, *wives*; *half*, *halves*.

As a Roman numeral, **V** means five; with a line above it, it stand for 5,000.

VACATION SCHOOLS. The long summer vacation for public school pupils, especially in the congested sections of cities where there are no playgrounds, has been found to be anything but beneficial to the children. Many of the large cities now maintain schools in such centers for a portion of the vacation, and these are known as vacation schools. Some of the branches taught are the same as those in the regular course of study, but usually more time is given to industrial training and to recreation. The girls are taught sewing and cooking, the boys, woodwork or some other occupation. Some schools offer work of the regular term for pupils who failed of promotion. In schools having a large number of pupils of foreign parentage, special emphasis is placed upon English. Vacation schools are popular, and usually the number of applicants for admission far exceeds the capacity of the buildings.

VACCINATION, *vak'se-nā'shun*, inoculation with the cowpox—a disease akin to, but much less severe than, smallpox—in order to prevent a person from catching the latter, or to make the attack much less severe. The principle upon which vaccination is based is that if one acquires the disease in a mild form, antitoxins for the cure of the disease will be manufactured in the blood and render that person immune from the attacks of

smallpox for several years. The practice of vaccination was introduced by Edward Jenner, an English physician, and it soon came into common use.

The usual method in vaccination is to make, upon the upper part of the arm, a few scratches across one another, with a clean lancet point. The virus from cowpox eruptions is then rubbed on the skin where the scratches have been made. If the vaccination proves successful, a small inflamed sore appears about the third day and increases in size until the tenth day. On the eighth day the constitutional effects manifest themselves by a slight pain in the part, headache, shivering and loss of appetite. These subside in one or two days. Afterward the fluid in the pustule dries up, and a scar forms, which disappears about the twentieth day, leaving a scar in the skin. Few things have been more definitely proved in medicine than that vaccination is a preventive of smallpox. To secure perfect immunity, repeated vaccinations at intervals of several years are necessary in most cases.

There is no danger in vaccination if pure virus is used and if the wound is kept free from infection. The wise plan is to have the vaccination made by a good physician, who will treat the wound properly and prevent any injurious results.

VACCINE THERAPY, *vak'se-nē th'er'a pi*, a method of medical treatment for combating diseases caused by bacteria. The treatment is based upon the principle that injection into the system of killed bacteria that produce the disease will develop in the blood another sort of bacteria that will destroy the disease-producing bacteria. The vaccines are usually prepared by placing some fluid of the body containing the disease-producing bacteria in some substance in which the bacteria will grow rapidly, then purifying this "cul-

ture" and treating it with a preservative. The vaccine is injected hypodermally, and works in a few hours. This method of treatment is successful in such diseases as carbuncle, ulcers, typhoid fever, tuberculosis and asthma. See *SURGICAL THERAPY*.

VACUUM, a term usually applied to a space from which air or other gases have been exhausted. An absolute vacuum is impossible, since however completely the gases may be exhausted, the space will still be filled with ether (see *ETHER*). However, in the ordinary use of the term, a vacuum is said to be produced when the air is removed from space as completely as possible by means of an air pump. Such vacuums are sufficiently perfect for common experiments. The most perfect vacuum formed in practice is that above the mercury in a barometer tube, produced by filling the tube with mercury and allowing it to settle until the column sustained is equal to the weight of an equal column of atmosphere (see *BAROMETER*). Other practical applications of the vacuum are found in the vacuum brake and the vacuum pan. See *AIR BRAKE*, *VACUUM PAN*.

VACUUM CLEANER, a device for removing dust from floors, walls and hangings by means of rolling brushes and air suction. Small cleaners propelled by hand or capable of being attached for power to electric sockets are in use in individual households. For larger buildings an air pump mounted on a truck and run by a gasoline engine may go from door to door, carrying the dust to a box in the truck by means of a large hose. Office buildings are commonly equipped with stationary engines, run by gasoline or electricity and operating a pump connected with a system of pipes leading to the different floors.

The use of the vacuum cleaner is a distinct advance in the matter of sanitation, as the former method of sweeping with brooms scattered the dust and was a means of spreading contagion.

VALDAI, val'dé, HILLS, a group of hills in West Central Russia, forming the chief watershed of that part of Europe. They consist of hills and plateaus, with an average altitude of from 8,000 to 9,000 feet. Formerly covered with forests, they are now cleared and cultivated. They contain the sources of the Volga, the Dneiper and the Duma.

VALENCIA, val'én'shah, SPAIN, the third city in population in the country, situ-

ated on the Guadalquivir River, three miles from the Mediterranean. Its history dates to 133 B. C. It was destroyed by Pompey of Rome, and was captured by the Visigoths in 413 and by the Moors in 714. From 1021 to 1238 it was the capital of an independent Moorish kingdom. In its modern aspect it is a picturesque mixture of Moorish architecture and modern streets and plazas. The University of Valencia, founded in 1411, is one of the foremost in Spain. The harbor is secure and well equipped to accommodate commerce and the city is an important railway center. The leading industry is the manufacture of silk, and the place is also noted for the making of colored tiles. Fruit raising is extensively carried on in the surrounding country. Population, 1934, 341,822.

VALENS (323-378), Roman emperor of the East, associated in power with his brother Valentian I. The chief event of Valens' reign was a war with the Goths, who, driven southward by the Huns, had received permission to settle on Roman territory. Irritated, however, by the treatment they received at the hands of the Roman officials, they soon took up arms and destroyed Valens and the greater part of his army.

VALENTINE, SAINT, a saint of the Roman calendar, said to have been martyred in A. D. 306. The custom of choosing valentines on his day (February 14) has been accidentally associated with his name. On the eve of Saint Valentine's day, young people of both sexes used to meet, and each of the men drew from a number of names of the opposite sex. Each gentleman thus got a lady for his valentine, and he became the valentine of a lady, to whom he was bound to be faithful for a year. A similar custom prevailed in the Roman Lupercalia, to which the modern custom has, with probability, been traced. The day is now celebrated by sending through the post, sentimental or ludicrous missives, specially prepared for the purpose.

VALENTINIAN I (321-375), on the death of Jovian, in 364, chosen emperor of Rome by the army, therefore one of the "barbarian emperors." He shared the empire with his brother Valens, who ruled in the East. Although chiefly occupied throughout his reign in repelling invasions of the barbarians, he proved himself a firm and just ruler, instituting many political and social reforms. His sons, Gratianus and Valentian II, succeeded him.

VALENTINIAN III. Roman emperor from 425 to 455. He was made emperor by Theodosius II, his grandfather, but never really exercised the imperial power, leaving it in the hands of his mother, Placidia, until her death in 450, and then largely in the hands of the empress Heraclius. Although the barbarians who were constantly harassing the empire were repeatedly defeated by Aspar, general of the army, Spain, Africa, Gaul and other provinces were lost to Rome during Valentinian's reign, and the empire grew steadily weaker. Valentinian was assassinated.

VALELIAN, a medieval plant, native to Europe and Northern Asia, growing abundantly by the sides of rivers and in ditches and moist weeds. The aromatic, volatile oil obtained from its roots is used as a stimulant in the treatment of nervous and circulatory disorders.

VALHALLA, in Old Norse mythology, the palace of immortality, inhabited by the souls of heroes slain in battle, and carried hither by the swift Valkyries. Here they spent their time in drinking and feasting and fighting furious battles, their wounds, though often serious, were healed every night. The name Valhalla is applied figuratively to any edifice which is the final resting place of many heroes. See **VALKYRIES**.

VALKYRIES, *val'kēz*, in Old Norse mythology, the maiden attendants of Odin, who, at his command, rode over battlefields and bore the souls of the bravest of the slain to Valhalla, Odin's great hall. Here the Valkyries waited upon the heroes, serving them mead in vessels made from skulls. The Valkyries were sometimes regarded as the personification of clouds, especially of storm clouds. See **VALHALLA**.

VALLADOLID, *vah-lah'-do-leed'*, Mexico
See **MORELIA, MEXICO**

VALLEJO, *val'-yeh'-oh*, CALIF., a city of Solano County, situated on the northeastern shore of San Pablo Bay, twenty-three miles northeast of San Francisco, on the Southern Pacific railroad. It has a fine, deep harbor, which admits the largest ocean ships, and is an important shipping point for grain. Its leading establishment is the Mare Island Navy Yard. There are also flour mills and tanning yards. The city is built on the slopes of a hill, and the surrounding country is devoted to the raising of fruit. The public institutions include an orphans' home, Saint

Vincent's Academy, a sailors' clubhouse, a Carnegie Library and a city hall. The city was founded in 1851 with the intention of making it the capital of the state. The legislature met here in 1851, in 1852 and for a time in 1853. The commission form of government was adopted in 1911. Population, 1920, 16,845; in 1930, 14,476, a decrease of 14 per cent.

VALLEY, low land between mountains, hills or bluffs. The largest and most important valleys have been formed by the up-heaving and folding of the earth's crust. Such valleys are found among mountain systems, and are called *intermontane valleys*. They are long and narrow, and their floor may have an elevation several hundred or several thousand feet above the sea level. The simplest valleys of this sort are found in the Jura Mountains, where the strata were not broken in folding and where the slopes are remarkably uniform and even. Many of the so-called basins in the Rocky Mountain plateau are also valleys formed by the folding of strata, but most of these are irregular and are caused by transverse ranges, show-



A VALKYRIE

ing that the movements by which they were formed were very complex.

Valleys running parallel to the mountain ranges are known as *longitudinal valleys*, those running across the ranges are *trans-*

valleys Transverse valleys may be due to breaks in the folded strata, but most of them have been formed by erosion. They are usually narrow, with very steep sides, and the floor is only wide enough for the stream which flows in it. When of high altitude these valleys are known as *passes*. Among the most celebrated of these passes are the Khyber Pass in the Himalayas and the Simplon Pass. When of low altitude, transverse valleys are frequently known as *water gaps*, as the Delaware Water Gap.

Valleys in volcano regions are usually due to volcano action and are found in the side or on the summit of mountains, around the crater. They are small and of comparatively little importance. River valleys are formed by erosion, but their location was first determined by the formation of mountains and valleys by folding. Glacial valleys are those which have been formed or modified by the action of glaciers. They are found in mountainous regions, and most of them were undoubtedly river gorges, previous to the glacial period. The lochs and firths of Scotland are good illustrations.

Drowned valleys are those partially under the sea, and are formed by the lowering of the coast. The fiords of Norway, Delaware Bay and the Gulf of St. Lawrence are good examples.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

Canyon	Glaciers
Fjord	Mountain

VALLEYFIELD, Que., on the Canadian National and the Saint Lawrence & Adirondacks railways, is the western terminus of the Beauharnois Canal. The town has large cotton and flour mills, paper, biscuit, gasoline motor, glove, clothing and cigar factories. It is the seat of a Roman Catholic bishop. Considerable lumbering and iron mining are done in the vicinity. Population, 1931, 11,411.

VALLEY FORGE, a village in Chester County, Pa., famous as the site of the quarters of the American colonial army under George Washington in the winter of 1777 and 1778. The army was 11,000 strong when it went into camp, December 17, but owing to mismanagement on the part of the quartermaster-general and the commissary department the supplies were totally inadequate, and fully half the men were soon unfit for duty. The suffering of the soldiers during the winter and following spring was almost incredible and tried the patriotism of even the most loyal

friends of the colonial cause. Washington remained with his men throughout this period and with the aid of Baron Steuben finally



WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS AT
VALLEY FORGE

succeeded in bringing the army to a high state of efficiency. Camp was broken June 18, 1778. The site is now partially included in a tract preserved by the state and known as Valley Forge Park.

VALOIS, *val wah'*, a dynasty ruling in France from 1328 to 1389, having its origin in the circumstances by which Philip III, in 1285, gave the county of Valois to his younger son, Charles. Upon the extinction of the Capet dynasty, in 1328, the eldest son of this Charles of Valois ascended the French throne as Philip VI. The elevation of the House of Valois to the throne of France gave rise to the series of long and bloody conflicts with England known as the Hundred Years' War.

VALPARAISO, *val pa r'so*, Chile, the capital of the province of Valparaiso and the chief port of the country, situated on the Pacific Ocean, sixty-eight miles northwest of Santiago. It has a commodious harbor, protected by a newly-constructed breakwater, and is connected by regular lines of steamers with leading American and European ports. It is strongly fortified, and has a large naval arsenal.

Back of the harbor rise hills and mountains, on the lower slopes of which is the newer residence portion of the city. The lower town contains the business section and city park. The buildings are mostly constructed of stone and are of a substantial character. The educational institutions include a naval school, a number of colleges and a school for marines. The city maintains a hydrographic bureau and a museum of natural history. The industrial establishments include foundries, machine shops, bottling works, distilleries, sugar refineries and rail-

road shops. The principal exports are grain, wool, leather, guano, saltpetre and copper, the imports are textile and other manufactured and mineral products.

Valparaiso was founded by Juan de Saavedra in 1586. It has been visited by several disastrous earthquakes, the latest being that of August 16 and 17, 1906. Population, 1932, 189,119.

VALPARAISO UNIVERSITY, an educational institution at Valparaiso, Ind., founded in 1873, for the purpose of providing college advantages for students of limited means. Since 1925 it has been under the control and management of the Lutheran University Association.

Students with acceptable scholastic records from recognized secondary schools are admitted on certificate. Degrees are given in four major departments of the University—Liberal Arts, Engineering, Pharmacy, and Law. It also maintains courses in Business Management and Economics and in Music. The average student attendance is 800, and the faculty numbers about 60. The library contains 18,000 volumes.

VALUE See SUPPLY AND DEMAND

VALVE, a device, as a cap, ball or slide, for the purpose of controlling the flow of liquids, steam, gas or loose material through pipes, tubes or chutes. As to the method of their operation, most valves may be included in this general classification: (1) valves opened and closed by hand, (2) those operated by independent mechanism, (3) those operated by mechanisms connected with the machine whose operation they control, and (4) those opened and closed by the motion of the fluid whose flow they control. Valves may rotate, rise and fall from their seats or open and close by sliding on and parallel to their seats. In the human anatomy the loose flap or fold of living membrane which regulates the flow of the blood and other bodily fluids is called a valve. See PUMP, STEAM ENGINE.

VAMPIRE, in Slavic folklore, a corpse which leaves its grave during the night and sucks the blood of living human beings, particularly of young people and children. The victims gradually lose strength and finally die from no apparent malady, while the corpse retains the appearance of a living being. The belief in vampires is an ancient one, fostered by the medieval Greek church as a means of terrifying the people into

godly behavior. It still persists in the locality of the lower Danube, where heretics, outcasts and criminals are still supposed to become vampires at death.

Figuratively, a vampire is a person who in any way preys on another. Kipling's poem, *The Vampire*, characterizes the parasitic woman.

VAMPIRE BAT, a Central and South American bat which takes its name from the habit of some of the species of sucking the blood of the cows, horses, and even man, attacking them in their sleep. These bats are of small size, are tailless, and have a pair of upper incisors elongated and sharpened to pierce the skin of their victims. They have gullets so small that only a liquid diet is possible, and the intestinal canal is modified to accommodate a diet of blood. The destructive qualities of these bats, however, have been greatly exaggerated.

VANADIUM, a silvery-white metallic element, extracted by difficult processes from a number of minerals. It is of value as an alloy in the manufacture of steel, especially that used in automobile construction, because it increases elasticity and tensile strength. Certain vanadium salts yield compounds that produce intense, permanently black pigments that are combined with aniline in the manufacture of dyes and also as the base of black writing fluids.



VAN BUREN, MARTIN (1782-1862), an American statesman, eighth President of the United States. He was the close friend and the successor of Andrew Jackson, to whom he owed his nomination by the Democrats. Van Buren was totally unlike his impulsive, outspoken predecessor. He was slight of figure, courteous, mellow-voiced and soft-spoken, yet beneath his placidity of manner there lay individuality, a firm will and strength of character. Tactful and commanding as he was, Van Buren could fight doggedly for principle, and notwithstanding his strong sense of party loyalty, he could break with his party when his conscience so dictated. His administration is noteworthy chiefly for the establishment of the independ-

ent treasury system, the result of his own tireless efforts. At the time he gained little credit for this achievement, but historians of to-day find this the outstanding feature of his career as President.

Early Life. Martin Van Buren was born at Kinderhook, Columbia County, New York, on December 5, 1782. He was the son of a small farmer. He attended the local schools until he was fourteen, after which he became office boy for a neighborhood lawyer, rising to the positions of clerk, copyist of pleas and special pleader in the constables' courts. After six years of such training he entered a New York law office, and in 1803 was admitted to the bar. He then entered into a partnership with his half brother, James Van Allen, in Kinderhook, where he was soon a conspicuous figure in local Democratic (then called Democratic-Republican) politics. Within the next few years Van Buren advanced rapidly in his profession, becoming probate judge in Columbia County, in 1808, and holding that position until 1813.

Political Advancement. In 1812 Van Buren was elected to the state senate of New York, and in 1815, while still a member of that body, was appointed attorney-general. He was reelected to the senate for the term 1816-1820, but lost his position as attorney-general in 1819 because of a political disagreement with Governor De Witt Clinton. Throughout this period he was steadily gaining in power of leadership, and in 1820 was successful in securing the reelection of Rufus King to the United States Senate. The following year he himself won a seat in that body.

Van Buren remained in the Senate until 1823, when he was elected governor of New York. In the Senate he had favored strict construction of the Constitution on all questions, and as a member of the finance committee and chairman of the judiciary committee he had made a good impression by his sincerity and moderation. His career as governor is of special interest to-day, in that he advocated two principles whose wisdom is more appreciated at present than in his time. In the first place he opposed free banking, and advocated a system whereby all the state banks would become "mutual insurers of each other's soundness." This plan is a feature of the present Federal Reserve system. Secondly, he recommended that state and national elections be separated

While this principle has not been extensively adopted, its soundness is generally accepted.

In the Presidential election of 1828, Van Buren effectively supported Andrew Jackson, whom he warmly admired, and in 1829 the latter rewarded him with the most important place in his first Cabinet, that of Secretary of State. Van Buren retained this office long enough to settle a disagreement between England and the United States with respect to the trade of the West Indies.

He resigned in 1831 and soon accepted the post of minister to England, but as a bit of party politicks the Senate Whigs succeeded in holding up the nomination after the appointee had sailed. It was known in political circles that Van Buren had resigned in order not to jeopardize his chances for the Presidential nomination in 1836, to which he was looking forward. The Whigs hoped to discredit him by their maneuver, but the pretext which they used was so feeble that their act served only to increase Van Buren's popularity. In 1832 he was elected Vice-President on the ticket with Jackson, and was in line for the nomination for President on the expiration of Jackson's second term. The Whigs were badly split, and in the electoral college in 1836 the party vote was divided among William Henry Harrison, Hugh L. White of Tennessee, Daniel Webster and W. P. Mangum of South Carolina. Van Buren had 170 votes against seventy-three for his nearest rival, Harrison.

Administration. The new President fell heir to a legacy of financial chaos, and his whole administration was clouded by that issue.

President Jackson, in 1833, had removed the funds of the government from the United States Bank, practically putting an end to the institution, which he regarded as a symbol of the "money power." The funds had been distributed among certain "pet banks," which used them in unsound speculation. Subsequently, Jackson issued a "specie circular" requiring that gold and



MARTIN VAN BUREN

Administration of Martin Van Buren, 1837-1841

- I THE PRESIDENT
 - (1) Birth
 - (2) Education
 - (3) Early career
 - (4) Later life
 - (5) Character
 - (6) Death
- II THE PANIC OF 1837
 - (1) Causes
 - (a) Over-speculation in land
 - (b) Expenditures for internal improvements
 - (c) Panic in England
 - (d) Failure of the wheat crop
 - (e) Wild-cat banking
 - (2) Effects
 - (a) High prices of necessities
 - (b) Bank and brokerage failures
 - (c) Business failures
 - (d) Distress among the poor
 - (e) Suspension of specie payments
 - (3) Led to independent treasury
- III DOMESTIC AFFAIRS
 - (1) Slavery agitation
 - (a) Riots and demonstrations
 - (1) Murder of Lovejoy
 - (2) Garrison mobbed in Boston
 - (b) Second Seminole War
 - (a) Skirmishes and raids
 - (b) Capture of Osceola and other chiefs
 - (c) Zachary Taylor's forces defeat Indians at Okeechobee swamp
 - (3) Oregon settlements
 - (a) Mostly by Hudson Bay Company
 - (b) Americans were missionaries
 - (4) The Mormons in Missouri
 - (a) Control of the government by the Mormon church
 - (b) Troubles at Kirtland
 - (c) Driven out of Missouri
 - (5) Riots and disorder
 - (a) The "buckshot" war
 - (b) The "broad seal" war
 - (e) Anti-rent or "patroon" war
 - (d) Canadian rebellion
 - (1) Attempts to enlist American aid
 - (2) Strict neutrality of the United States
 - (3) The Caroline affair
 - (f) Great inventions and discoveries
 - (a) Friction matches, 1838
 - (b) Magnetic telegraph
 - (c) First photograph taken
 - (d) Vulcanized rubber
- IV QUANDREL WITH MEXICO
 - (1) Causes
 - (a) Property of Americans in danger
 - (b) United States vessels seized
 - (c) United States citizens imprisoned and executed
 - (2) Mexico resented recognition of Texan independence
- V ELECTION OF 1840
 - (1) Issues
 - (2) Candidates

Questions on Van Buren

When was Martin Van Buren born? In what state?

What profession did he adopt?

What public offices did he hold before 1837?

What can you say of his abilities and character?

What were the principal causes of the panic of 1837? Give details of each as far as you can.

What were some of the immediate effects of the panic?

What is meant by the independent treasury or subtreasury system?

Who was Elijah Lovejoy? Where did he live?

Give a brief summary of the career of William Lloyd Garrison.

What future President took a prominent part in the second Seminole War?

Who was the founder of the Mormon sect?

Name three inventions perfected during Van Buren's administration.

THE GREAT FINANCIAL PANIC OF 1841.

1837-1841.

THE GREAT
FINANCIAL PANIC
... OF 1841 .

SHOTDOWN THE SYSTEM
ESTABLISHED
BY THE BANKS

THE
LAWYERS

CHARGE THEM WITH
CRIMES OF HIGH
MAGNITUDE

MAGNETIC TELEGRAPH

PROVED USELESS

FRICTION MATCHES

DO NOT BURN



VI
C
T
O
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THE
SEASIDE
WALK.

THE
PENINSULA
WALK.



silver be paid for public lands, which drained the banks of their reserves and caused many failures. It was a period of credit inflation, reckless issuance of paper money and extravagant expenditures for public improvements, and in 1837, shortly after Van Buren began his term, a disastrous panic overwhelmed the nation.

The President called Congress in special session, and in his first message, September 1, 1837, outlined his policy. After explaining the causes of the panic, he presented his plan for an independent treasury, whereby the control of national finances would be divorced from private banking and the government would be the custodian of its own funds, as it is to-day. For three years he labored to have this policy adopted, not until July, 1840, did he succeed in persuading a reluctant Congress to pass the law which he regarded as a sort of "second Declaration of Independence." Except for a short interval under the Whig régime, the independent treasury has remained a permanent national institution.

Though the financial issue overshadowed all others, it is not true that Van Buren's term was in other respects uneventful. The slavery issue, becoming yearly more entangled with politics, was the cause of such disturbances as the murder of Elijah Lovejoy at Alton, Ill., and the mobbing of the great abolitionist, William Lloyd Garrison. There were outbreaks in New York against the landlords, or patroons, and in Missouri against the Mormons, in Florida a desperate war with the Seminoles was waged. A rebellion in Canada and the establishment of the republic of Texas caused disturbances along the international boundaries, north and south.

Van Buren was not responsible for these conditions, but they reacted against him, and with the prevalent hard times served to make his administration and the Democratic party extremely unpopular. He also alienated many voters by refusing to aid the Canadian rebels, though time has vindicated his attitude of strict neutrality. Considerable material progress is recorded of the period. In 1837 the magnetic telegraph was invented; friction matches were first used in 1838; in 1839 the first photograph was taken in America. In 1839, too, the process of vulcanizing rubber was invented by Charles Goodyear.

Van Buren was a candidate for reelection,

but his administration was connected with too much that was disagreeable, and he was defeated. He secured but sixty electoral votes, to 234 for the Whig candidate, William Henry Harrison. Calmly accepting his defeat, he retired to his country seat of Lindenwald in his native county.

As Ex-President Van Buren by no means disappeared from the public eye during the last two decades of his life. In 1844 he took a firm stand against the annexation of Texas, thus losing the Democratic nomination for the Presidency, and within the next three years he came out definitely against the extension of slavery. In 1848 the faction of the Democratic party which upheld the Wilmot Proviso (which see) nominated him, against his wishes, for the Presidency, and the nomination was confirmed by a convention of "Free-Soulers." The regular Democrats nominated Lewis Cass, from whom Van Buren pulled enough votes to give the election to Zachary Taylor. Van Buren received about 300,000 popular votes, but he carried no state. He remained a Democrat to the end of his life, but his sympathy for the anti-slavery cause made him a firm supporter of Lincoln after the outbreak of the Civil War. He died in the second year of the struggle, and was buried at Kinderhook, N.Y.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

Garrison, William	Seminole
Lloyd	Texas (History)
Lovejoy, Elijah P.	Treasury Department
Political Parties in	
the United States	

VANCOUVER, van loo'ver, B.C., the third largest city of Canada and the metropolis of the province, is situated on Burrard Inlet, an arm of the Strait of Georgia. Vancouver is the western terminus of the Canadian Pacific Railway, and it was laid out by that railway corporation in 1885. It is now also the terminus of two other great trans-continental railway systems, the Canadian National Railways, and the Pacific Great Eastern. It is also the western terminus of the British Columbia Electric Railway, which extends to Chilliwack and New Westminster. The city is on one of the best harbors in the world, and has regular steamship connection with China, Japan and other ports of the Orient. It also has a coastwise trade with Alaska and the Pacific ports of the United States.

The prominent buildings include the Vancouver Block, the Standard Bank Building, Rogers Building, Vancouver Hotel, the custom-house, public library and courthouse. The University of British Columbia, the leading



VANCOUVER ISLAND AND CITY

educational institution of the province, is located here. Stanley Park, having an area of 600 acres, mostly in the natural state, adds much to the beauty of the city.

Vancouver is next to Prince Rupert the nearest North American port to the Orient, and it has a large export trade exceeding \$100,000,000 a year. It is also an important manufacturing center. The principal manufactures include lumber and lumber products, structural steel, wooden and steel ships, furniture, machinery and refined sugar. Population, 1931, 246,593.

VANCOUVER, GEORGE (1758-1798), an explorer and discoverer. He accompanied Cook on several of his voyages, and later was in command of an expedition to explore Australia and New Zealand. From there he sailed by way of the Hawaiian Islands to North America, where he surveyed, in a period of two years, the coast from 35° to 56° North latitude. Vancouver Island was named after him. He sailed for England via Cape Horn and Saint Helena, and died shortly after his arrival at his home in Surrey.

VANCOUVER, WASH., the county seat of Clark County, five miles north of Portland, Ore., on the Columbia River and on the Northern Pacific, the Great Northern, Union Pacific, and the Spokane, Portland & Seattle railroads. There are two airports, one a Federal field. It is the United States military headquarters for the department of Columbia. Vancouver lies in a section of large forests and farming lands. The leading industrial plants include a paper mill, flour mills, an ice plant, creameries, canneries, car-repair shops, brickyards, box factories and fruit-packing plants. The state schools for the blind and the deaf and Saint Joseph's Hospital are located here. Notable buildings are a Carnegie Library, the United States National Bank Building, and a courthouse and postoffice. An Interstate bridge spans the Columbia River at this point. Vancouver was first settled as a post of the Hudson's Bay Company in 1828, and was incorporated as a city in 1858. Population, 1920, 12,637; in 1930, 15,766, a gain of 25 per cent.

VANCOUVER ISLAND, an island in the Pacific Ocean, off the coast of British Columbia, of which it is politically a part. It is separated from the mainland of Canada by the Gulf of Georgia and Queen Charlotte Sound and from the United States by the Strait of Juan de Fuca. Its length is 275 miles; its greatest breadth, sixty-five miles, and its area, about 12,000 square miles. The island is generally mountainous, being a continuation of the Coast Ranges formation. It has a mild, moist climate, and in the south and east its soil is fertile and well suited to agriculture and fruit growing. The mountains are generally covered with heavy coniferous and deciduous forests. The interior is well adapted to grazing, and large numbers of horses, cattle, sheep and swine are raised. Fishing interests along the shores of the streams and lakes are of considerable importance. Mineral resources include coal, gold and copper. The coal mines are extensively worked and supply the greater part of the coal used on the Pacific coast. The chief town is Victoria, the capital of British Columbia. The island was visited by Vancouver, an officer of the British navy, in 1792, and was named for him. The United States claimed it, but when the Oregon boundary question was settled in 1846, it became a possession of Great Britain.

VANDALS, an ancient Teutonic people, inhabiting the region between the Vistula and the Oder, whence they moved southward and settled in Pannoma, becoming Christians of the Arian faith. At the beginning of the fifth century they entered Gaul and crossed the Pyrenees into Spain. One section settled in Galicia and were almost entirely destroyed in a struggle with the Goths and Suevi, the other settled in a part of Baetica, which received from them the name *Andalusa*. In 429 they crossed the Strait of Gibraltar, under their dreaded leader, Genseric, carrying devastation and ruin from the shores of the Atlantic to the frontiers of Cyrene. In 455 Genseric and his soldiers sacked Rome, plundering and ruining temples, beautiful buildings and works of art. The word *vandal* is still applied to persons who are wilfully destructive.

VANDERBILT, Cornelius (1794-1877), American capitalist and financier, born on Staten Island, N.Y. At the age of sixteen he bought a boat and ferried passengers and goods across to the city. Gradually extending his enterprise, by the age of forty he had become the owner of a fleet of sound and river steamers running to Boston and up the Hudson. In 1849 he founded a steamship and transfer line by way of Lake Nicaragua to California, and during the Crimean War he established a line of ocean steamships to Havre. Because of the large fleet of boats he owned he was popularly known as "Commodore." Later he transferred his capital from steamships to railroads, obtaining a controlling interest in a large number of Eastern roads, and extending his system to Chicago by securing the Lake Shore & Michigan Southern, the Canada Southern and Michigan Central roads. At his death he left a fortune of \$100,000,000 to his son, William Henry Vanderbilt. His philanthropies included a gift of a million dollars for the founding of Vanderbilt University.

VANDERBILT, Cornelius (1843-1899), son of William Henry Vanderbilt, made first vice-president of the New York Central Rail-

road when his father succeeded to its presidency, on the death of his grandfather, Cornelius Vanderbilt, in 1877. He subsequently held directorships in more than thirty different railroad companies. He was a contributor to many educational institutions, including Vanderbilt and Yale Universities. The prized treasure of the Metropolitan Museum, New York, *Rosa Bonheur's Horse Fair*, was the gift of Cornelius Vanderbilt.

VANDERBILT, William Henry (1821-1885), son of "Commodore" Vanderbilt and his successor in the management of the Vanderbilt system of railroads, which he extended till he controlled the Michigan Central, the Lake Shore & Michigan Southern, the Canada Southern, the Chicago & North Western, the Nickel Plate and the West Shore railroad. He was considered one of the greatest authorities on transportation of his day. He gave large sums to Vanderbilt University and Columbia University.

VANDERBILT, William Kissam (1849-1920), son of William Henry Vanderbilt, entrusted by his father with the management of numerous responsible offices connected with the New York Central Railroad and a director in fourteen different lines. With his brother, Frederick William and George Washington Vanderbilt, he founded the Vanderbilt Club in New York City, and erected Kissam Hall at Vanderbilt University, in memory of their mother.

VANDERBILT UNIVERSITY, a co-educational institution, established at Nashville, Tenn., in 1872, under the auspices of the Methodist Episcopal Church, and named in honor of Cornelius Vanderbilt, who gave \$1,000,000 for the purpose of establishing the school. According to its present organization, however, the university is not under sectarian management. There are maintained a college of arts and sciences, and schools of law, religion, medicine, dentistry, pharmacy and engineering. Vanderbilt University has been a strong influence in the South in keeping educational standards high. It has a student enrollment of over 1,600 and a faculty of about 800. There are 125,000 volumes in the library. The university has received generous gifts from the Vanderbilt family and from Andrew Carnegie.

VAN DYK, or **VANDYKE**, van diek, ANTHONY, Sir (1599-1641), next to Rubens his teacher, the most famous portrait painter of the Flemish school. He was born at Ant-



CORNELIUS
VANDERBILT

warp, where his father was a merchant and his mother a skilled worker in tapestry. He studied under Van Balen and Rubens and also in Genoa, Venice and Rome. Having acquired a great reputation in Antwerp as a fashionable portrait painter, he was invited to England by Charles I, who bestowed upon him knighthood and a considerable annuity. While in England he painted more than 300 portraits, his patrons including almost every distinguished person of the court. His portraits are characterized by delicacy and refinement. Those best known are *Portrait of Charles I* and *Children of Charles I* and the *Portrait of a Lady and Child*. He also painted a number of historical and mythological subjects, and his *Elevation of the Cross* and *Crucifixion* are well known. He married Mary Ruthven of the English nobility, and her buried in Saint Paul's, London.

VAN DYKE, HENRY (1852-1933), American poet, essayist and educator. He was born at Germantown, Pa., and graduated at Princeton and at

Princeton Theological Seminary. In 1873 he became pastor of the United Congregational Church of Newport, R. I., and five years later was called to the Brick Presbyterian Church of New York. Here he remained as pastor until 1900, when he became professor of English literature in Princeton University. Van Dyke has written extensively, and always attractively, in various fields.

The Builders and Other Poems and *Muse and Other Poems* are among his volumes of poetry. *The Gospel for an Age of Doubt* and *Sermons to Young Men* are examples of his religious work; *The Blue Flower* and *The Ruling Passion* are some of his charming works of fiction, and *Fisherman's Luck* and *Little Rivers* include his best work in the field of essays. In 1918 Dr Van Dyke was appointed minister to the Netherlands by President Wilson, a position which he held with honor throughout the greater part of the World War. This post he resigned in 1917 before the United States entered the war. After America became a belligerent he was appointed supervisory chaplain in the navy.



HENRY VAN DYKE

VAN HISE, CHARLES ERICHARD (1857-1918), an American geologist and educator, born at Fulton, Wisconsin, educated in the University of Wisconsin. Soon after graduation he became connected with the faculty of his alma mater, serving successively as instructor in chemistry, assistant professor of mineralogy, professor of geology and president of the university, to which position he was elevated in 1903. Under his administration the institution became one of the most progressive and useful schools in the United States. He was particularly effective in making extension courses available to all classes of people throughout the state.

Professor Van Hise was made a member of the United States Geological Survey in 1883. He won recognition as the highest authority on rocks of the Algoma and Archaean Systems and especially on the ore-bearing rocks of the Lake Superior region. He was the author of a series of books on geological subjects and of *The Conservation of Natural Resources in the United States*.

VAN HORNE, WILLIAM CORNELIUS, Sir (1843-1915), railway official and expert, best known for his connection with the Canadian Pacific Railway, which was completed under his energetic and efficient management. He served that railway from 1882 to 1910 as general manager, vice-president, president and chairman of the board of directors, successively. Van Horne was born in the United States and served several mid-western railroads in that country before being called to Canada.

VANILLA, a genus of plants belonging to the orchid family, source of the well-known vanilla of commerce. The plants are common in Mexico, and are also found in Central and South America and the East Indies. The vanilla plant climbs by means of aerial roots and has large white, red or greenish flowers. The fruit is a long, brown, shiny bean, filled with a dark, oily, odoriferous pulp. This bean is gathered before it is fully ripe, and the oil is extracted by a slow process which brings out its peculiar odor and flavor. Vanilla is used in medicine as a



VANILLA

stumulant, but its chief use is in the preparation of liquors and perfumery and in flavoring candy and other confections. The vanilla plant is propagated by cuttings, produces a crop every three years and continues bearing for thirty or forty years. Vanilla is produced artificially by several methods, the artificial product is very common.

VAN LOON, HENDRIK WILLEM (1882-

Born in Rotterdam, Holland, and educated in universities in Europe and America, he became a reporter, editor, professor of history, then one of the most notable authors of his generation. Van Loon came to public attention when he published *The Story of Man*, he wrote it in 1921 solely for his son, but was induced to publish it. Another volume, *Van Loon's Geography*, proved equally popular. *The Story of the Bible, Ancient Man, America, The Fall of the Dutch Republic, The Days of the Dutch Kingdom, A Short History of Discovery, Tolerance, Ships and How They Sailed the Seven Seas*, and *Air-Storming* followed. He illustrates his works with his own pen-drawings.

VAPOR, in physics, the gaseous state into which solids and liquids pass when heated. In their structure and physical properties, there is practically no difference between vapors and gases (see GAS), but in ordinary usage the term vapor is applied to those gases that are formed by the action of heat on liquids and solids, while the term gas is applied to those substances which remain in gaseous form under ordinary conditions of temperature and pressure. We speak of steam as a vapor and of oxygen as a gas. Water vapor formed by the action of the heat of the sun on the surface of the land is always present in the atmosphere and has an important effect on climate. See RAIN.

VARICOSE, *var' e kōz'*, VEINS, dilated veins, which are marked by knotty swellings at the valves. The disease commonly affects the lower limbs and sometimes becomes very painful and even dangerous, from the bursting of the veins, though it often is merely an inconvenience. Rest and support in an elevated position and the application of proper bandages are elements in the treatment.

VARIETY, in plant and animal classification, a subdivision of a species, including an individual or group of individuals differing in some nonessential way from the

rest of the species. Varieties are believed to result from differences in climate, nourishment, cultivation and the like, and to be less permanent than species.

In naming plants and animals, the name of the variety is placed third, following the name of the species, as *Ranunculus multifidus*, variety, *terrestris*. Here, *Ranunculus multifidus* is the common, yellow, water crowfoot, and the variety *terrestris* is a form growing on the ground.

VARICOLOID, a mild form of smallpox, induced by inoculation. See SMALLPOX.

VARNISSH, a transparent liquid made by dissolving gums in alcohol, turpentine or oil. It is used to form a transparent coat over surfaces to protect them from air and moisture or to make them more beautiful. The numerous substances most commonly employed for varnishes are mastic, lac, copal, amber and asphalt, and the solvents are fixed oil, volatile oil and alcohol. Varnishes are colored with annatto, gamboge, saffron, dragon's blood and other substances.

The base of varnish is gum copal, or the fossil gum found in Zanzibar, Sierra Leone, New Zealand and the Philippine Islands. The best gum is found in Zanzibar. When the gum is received in the varnish factory, it is broken up into pieces about the size of small egg coal. As it is being broken up, it is selected, for in one chunk of the amberlike material there may be both transparent and almost opaque streaks; the white transparent gum goes into the making of the best grades of varnish, and the dark-colored gum goes into the poorer grades. After the gum copal is broken, it is run through a series of hand sieves, which divide it into block, nut, chip and dust, for convenience in handling. The gum is then ready for the kettle.

For first-class varnish, Calcutta linseed oil is preferred. This oil is made from the flaxseed of India. The turpentine used for thinning the varnish is of the best and purest grade. The copper kettles in which the melting and mixing are done are on truck wheels, so that they can be rolled over a fire or taken off easily. The melting gum is constantly stirred. When the oil has been mixed with the liquid gum, the kettle is run back over the fire once more, and the gum and oil are boiled again. Then it is set away to cool, after which a quantity of turpentine is mixed with the gum and oil

and the varnish is made. The varnish is strained through cotton before it is pumped into the storage tanks, where it is left to age for at least six months and often for two years.

Shellac varnish is made in churns, or barrels, revolving on journals. The shellac as it comes from India looks like amber-colored wax, for it is in thin sheets and is almost transparent. Thus shellac is mixed with the proper amount of alcohol, to dissolve it and form the varnish.

VASCO DA GAMA. See GAMA, VASCO DA

VASE, a vessel of an ornamental character, generally of pottery but frequently of stone, glass, metal or other materials. Those which have come down to us from ancient times in greatest numbers are the so-called Etruscan vases, made of terra cotta and adorned with painted figures (see ETRUSCAN, subhead *Etruscan Vases*). The Greek vases of the oldest style come chiefly from Corinth and the islands of Thera and Melos. Those of the late rich style have been almost exclusively discovered in Lower Italy, Apulia and Lucania. They were probably manufactured there, chiefly in the fourth and third centuries B. C.

Italy, France and Germany in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries produced many vases which are the perfection of artistic form and execution and since the fifteenth century the Venetian vases have been masterpieces of art. From India, China and Japan also have been obtained vases of various materials, especially of porcelain, varying in elegance of form and beauty of ornamentation with those produced in Europe. Of late, some vases have been produced in the potteries of the United States which compare favorably with those made in other lands.

VASELINE, *vas'leɪn*, or *vas'leɪn*, a product composed of a mixture of paraffines, obtained from petroleum after the hydrocarbons are driven off. It is used as a base for ointments, pomades and cold cream, and is employed for coating surgical instruments and steel surfaces, generally to protect them from rust. See PETROLEUM.

VASSAR COLLEGE, one of the leading American colleges for women, founded near Poughkeepsie, N. Y., in 1861, and named in honor of Matthew Vassar, whose generosity made its establishment possible

The college buildings are located on a picturesque elevation. Besides the residence halls, they include Taylor Hall, Rockefeller Hall, Chapel, Thompson Memorial Library, a museum and an observatory. The Students Building is the Social Center. There is also a farm of 675 acres, on which is maintained a model dairy. Conservatories, flower gardens, an open air theater and athletic grounds are other interesting features. Vassar maintains high standards of scholarship and provides courses leading to the degrees of Bachelor of Arts and Master of Arts. There is a faculty of nearly 200, and a student enrollment of about 1,150. The library contains over 150,000 books and pamphlets.

Matthew Vassar (1792-1866), founder of the college, was born at Norfolk, England, but was brought to America when four years old. His boyhood was passed near Poughkeepsie, where his father built up a prosperous brewing business. Besides contributing funds to establish the college which bears his name, he gave generously to other causes.

VATICAN CITY, the smallest independent state in the world, the domain of the Pope. It is also the center of the Roman Catholic religion, therefore the Pope is a temporal ruler as well as the spiritual head of his Church. Before 1870 the Papal States, about 16,000 square miles in Northern Italy, were controlled by the Church, and in them the Pope exercised temporal power. When modern Italy was organized, the Papal States were seized, the Pope was given the Vatican Palace and the Lateran palaces in Rome, in which he secluded himself a voluntary prisoner, and from which his successors never ventured.

Continued protest against loss of temporal power led to an agreement in 1929 by which 108.7 acres within Rome were ceded to the Church, an area once more assigned to the temporal power of the Pope. In addition, 750,000,000 lire in cash and 1,000,000,000 lire in Italian bonds were given to the Pope as added recompense for the loss of the old Papal States. The civil rule of the Pope embraces all legal, executive, and judicial powers, but he entrusts his authority to a governor, who is responsible solely to him. Vatican City possesses its own postal system and coinage. Population, 1932, 1,026.

Vatican Palace, the residence of the Pope, the chief building in Vatican City, no

less famed than St Peter's Church. Its construction was begun about 1150, it has been many times enlarged, and is said to contain 1,100 rooms. On the walls and ceilings are renowned works of art by Michelangelo, Raphael, and others. The library contains priceless collections of manuscripts and rare books, many of them hundreds of years old. The total number of volumes is not less than 250,000.

VATICAN COUNCIL, the Ecumenical Council of the Church of Roma, which met in the Vatican under Pope Pius IX, Dec 8, 1869, and adjourned July 18, 1870. No council had ever been attended by so large a number of ecclesiastics. It declared the personal infallibility of the Pope, when speaking *ex cathedra*, to be a doctrine of the Church, a declaration yet maintained.

VAUDEVILLE, *vod'vevil*, in the French sense, a kind of farcical comedy in which dialogue is interspersed with dancing, comic acting and songs of the day, a name originally given to a popular humorous drinking song, first composed in the valley of *Van-de-Vire*. In the United States, vaudeville is merely a series of singing, acting and dancing numbers, pretending to no unity and having no relation to the drama.

VAULT, in architecture, a continued arch, or an arched roof, so constructed that the stones, bricks or other materials of which it is composed, sustain and keep one another in place. Vaults may be cylindrical, elliptical, single, double, cross, diagonal or Gothic.

VEDAS, *ved'as*, from a Sanskrit word meaning *know*, the oldest sacred writings of India, written in Sanskrit and supposed to have been produced by a series of authors between 1500 and 1000 B.C. The Vedas are four in number, called respectively, the *Rig-Veda*, *Yajur-Veda*, *Sama-Veda* and *Atharva-Veda*. Of these the *Rig-Veda* is the oldest and most important. Its name means *stanzas of praise*, and it consists of more than a thousand hymns, most of them celebrating the deeds and begging the blessing of the greater gods. The other three seem to have been drawn largely from the first one. The latest of the four is sometimes questioned as to authenticity, being concerned rather with superstition than with religion. It reflects the development of the Brahmanical system with its departure from the earlier monotheistic system and its polytheistic rites.

All the Vedas are believed by the Brahmins to be inspired, and are held by them in the highest respect.

VEGA CARPIO, *ve'ga kar'pe o*, FELIX LOPE DE (1562-1635), a dramatic poet of Spain, best known as Lope de Vega, the most prolific imaginative writer in the annals of literature. Born in Madrid, in 1562, he joined the army, and in 1588 accompanied the Invincible Armada on its ill-fated expedition against England. After being twice married and twice a widower, he became a priest and subsequently entered the order of Saint Francis. He had already published various poems, but his dramatic and poetical productions now multiplied with extraordinary rapidity. For many years there was scarcely a week when he did not produce a play, and he himself declared that he often wrote, rehearsed and produced a play in twenty-four hours. He enjoyed an immense popularity and received marks of distinction from the king of Spain and from Pope Urban VIII. About three hundred of his dramatic works have been printed. They reveal an inexhaustible, though ill-regulated, imagination, a strong mixture of the sublime and the ridiculous and extraordinary facility in versification.

VEGETABLE, *vej'e tel b'l*, IVORY See Ivory PALM

VEGETABLES, in the sense in which the term is generally used, those parts of plants, exclusive of fruits, which are used for food. In some, as the turnip, the roots are the parts used; in others, as the onion, the bulbs. The tubers of the potato and artichoke, the stems of asparagus, the leaves of the lettuce and cabbage; the flower buds of the cauliflower, the green fruit of the cucumber; the ripe fruit of the tomato; the seeds of corn, peas and beans, are common vegetable foods.

The principal components of vegetables are water, protein, fat, nitrogen, starch and certain indigestible refuse, like fiber and ash. The proportions of these constituents vary among different vegetables, but in all, the principal element is water. The amount of water varies from 58.9 per cent, in green beans, to 95.4 per cent, in the cucumber. The per cent of protein varies from 4 per cent, in the watermelon, to 9.4 per cent, in green beans. The amount of fat varies from 1 per cent, in the pumpkin, the radish, the potato, celery and the beet, to 11 per cent in

green corn The amount of nitrogen varies from 2.2, in lettuce, to 28.1, in the sweet potato

Of fresh vegetables, green shelled beans have the highest fuel value, and the cucumber has the lowest, the value of the latter being about one-ninth that of the former Others which contain a high fuel value are sweet potatoes, green peas, green corn, sugar peas and parsnips In the cooking of vegetables, besides the loss of water content, there are chemical changes which often detract materially from the food value Vegetables form an important part of the diet, in addition to their nutritive value, they contain many of the vitamins and other elements essential to the health of the body

Related Articles. For descriptions of the vegetables in common use consult the following titles

Artichoke	Corn	Pea
Asparagus	Cress	Pumpkin
Bean	Cucumber	Radish
Beet	Mangold	Rhubarb
Broccoli	Kohlrabi	
Sprouts	Lettuce	Spinach
Cabbage	Lettuce	Squash
Carrot	Onion	Tomato
Cauliflower	Oyster Plant	Turnip
Celery	Parsley	Sweet Potato
Chard	Parsnip	Yam
Chicory		

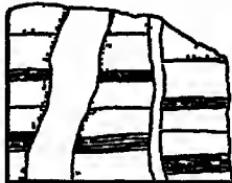
VEGETARIANISM, the belief and practice of subsisting on a vegetable diet to the exclusion of animal food, a doctrine held in ancient times by such men as Pythagoras, Plato and Plutarch and later by Rousseau, Shelley and Swedenborg At present vegetarian societies exist in considerable numbers in the United States, Canada and several European countries A vegetable diet, it is claimed, is more healthful, economical and ethically effective than a diet mixed with animal food Vegetarians differ among themselves, however, as to the degree to which they exclude animal products, some excluding only flesh, others fish and fowl, and others milk, eggs and cheese, as well While scientific investigations on the whole show the superior efficacy of a mixed diet on the human mechanism, the vegetarians have without doubt done society a service in calling attention to the prevailing custom of eating too much meat

VEII, vē'yī, an ancient Etruscan town, in early times the most formidable rival of Rome The Romans and the Veientes were constantly at war, and because the latter were uniformly unsuccessful in pitched battle, they adopted the plan of shutting themselves up in the city when the Romans

approached and of going out to plunder when they were safe from attack The family of Fabius, to whom had been entrusted the defense of Roman territory against the Veientes, were decoyed into ambush and put to death in this manner About 396 B C Camillus took the city, after which it declined to an insignificant village

VEIN, *vēn*, in geology, a formation of igneous rock, occupying a fissure in other rock, as represented by the nearly perpendicular layers

in the figure They often extend into the earth hundreds of feet Veins are usually formed by rock in molten condition, forced into



VEINS

the crevice by pressure, but may also be the result of mineral deposits left by underground waters They often contain ore deposits, as gold, silver and other metals Miners call a metal-bearing vein a lode Small veins are often seen in boulders and pebbles, where they can be easily studied See DIKE, GEOLOGY

VEINS, a system of canals, or tubes, distributed throughout the bodies of animals, for the purpose of returning the impure blood to the heart and lungs, after it has been carried to the various parts by the arteries Veins originate in the capillaries as tiny tubes, and as they unite they decrease in number and increase in size, till all those from the head, neck and upper extremities form the *superior vena cava* and those from the other parts of the body form the *inferior vena cava* Both these large veins empty into the right auricle of the heart The position of the veins in the circulatory system is shown in the color plate accompanying the article CIRCULATION

The walls of the veins, like those of the arteries, are composed of three coats, but they are less elastic and have no pulsation They collapse readily when empty The distinguishing parts of a vein are the valves, which are made of folds in the internal coat and are arranged in pairs They lie against the walls when the blood is flowing outward, but if from any cause the flow is obstructed the valves are forced upward till they meet in the middle of the vein, and so prevent the

blood from flowing backward. The action of the valves may be shown by pressing on some vein near the surface, thus preventing the flow of the blood toward the heart, when the valves will make little elevations in the vein. Valves are not found in the very smallest veins, nor in those of the abdomen, lungs and brain.

The blood flowing from a wounded vein is dark in color and comes out in an even stream. To check the flow, press on the vein below the wound or between it and the extremity.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

Arteries	Circulation
Capillaries	Wound

VELASQUEZ, or VELASQUEZ, or Velasquez de Silvay, Luis, Don Díaz ROMOUREZ de SILVAY (1599-1660), the greatest master of Spanish painting. He was born at Seville, of Portuguese parents, and studied first under Francisco Herrera the elder, and afterward under Francisco Pacheco. In 1622 he went to Madrid, and as the result of this visit received an appointment as principal painter to Philip IV. Through the advice and intercession of Rubens,

VELASQUEZ

Velasquez went later to Italy, where he closely studied the works of Michelangelo, Raphael and Titian and the contemporary painters, especially Guido Reni, whose influence is evident to a marked degree in his works. On his return to Spain, in 1631, Velasquez was received with great distinction, and in 1658 the king raised him to the dignity of a noble.

Velasquez' chief characteristic in painting is naturalism. He was never imaginative, but painted exactly what he saw, combining this power of realism with a mastery of light, shade, coloring and composition. Among his finest works are the *Ayudador, or Water Carrier*, a *Nativity, or Adoration of the Shepherds*, the *Brothers of Joseph*, *Moses Taken from the Nile*, portraits of Philip IV and of Elizabeth, his queen, Pope Innocent X and other dignitaries, and many pictures both from history and from common life.

VELOCIPEDE, or los's pede, a light vehicle or carriage propelled by the feet of its

rider. One of the older forms of this carriage was constructed of two wheels of nearly equal size, placed one before the other and connected by a beam, on which the driver's seat was fixed. The rider, sitting astride the machine, propelled it by the thrust of each foot on the ground. This form dates from the early part of the nineteenth century. It was about half a century later that treadles, operating cranks on the axle of the front wheel, came into use. See BIKE.

VELOCITY, or los's ty, the rate at which a body changes its position in space. Velocity is popularly expressed as so many miles per hour or as so many feet per second. The velocity of a body is uniform, when it passes through equal spaces in equal times, it is variable, when the spaces passed through in equal times are unequal, it is accelerated, when during each portion of time it passes through a greater space than during the preceding equal portion, it is retarded, when a less space is passed through in each successive portion of time. Linear velocity is speed forward in a straight line, angular velocity is speed about an axis.

VELVET, the most familiar of the fabrics woven with a pile, produced by adding to the usual threads of the warp and weft an additional row of warp yarns, woven into the ground of the cloth and passed over wires on the surface. In the case of a loop pile, the wires are drawn out, without cutting, but for velvet or other cut pile, a knife is passed along a groove on the top of each wire before the wire is withdrawn. Real velvet is made entirely of silk. Cotton and woolen goods, woven in this manner, are called *velvets* and *plush*, respectively.

Some of the richest and most artistic of the textiles woven on Italian looms in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries were made, in part at least, of velvet. Similar stuffs were also made in Spain and Flanders. Many of these were for ecclesiastical vestments and altar cloths, and for hangings. The effect of a raised pattern in velvet, on a plain or figured silk ground, is very beautiful. Sometimes a design is formed of a long, upon a short, pile, called *velet upon velet*, and this, too, has a fine effect. Velvet is believed to have been made first in China.

VELVET LEAF. See LIMA MALLOW.

VENATION, or no'shun, the arrangement of veins in leaves, related to the shape of the leaf and its mode of germination, an in-



portant characteristic in the classification of plants. Most leaves are netted-veined, parallel-veined or fork-veined. The netted-veined are the most numerous, and are divided into several groups. True netted leaves have a single midrib from which branch primary veins terminating in delicate veinlets that curve upward just within the margin of the leaf. If the primary veins extend directly to the edge of the leaf they are said to be feather-veined. For illustrations of venation, see the article LEAVES.

VENDETTA, *vəndətə*, an Italian word, taken from the Latin *vendetta*, meaning *revenge*, is a blood feud in which the next of kin assumes responsibility for avenging a murdered person, probably a survival of methods of enforcing justice practised before the organization of the state and of public courts. In Corsica the vendetta is held to be one of the most binding of family obligations, and the custom is held to a greater or less degree among the Albanians, Druses, Bedouins and other isolated and primitive peoples. The feuds among the mountaineers of Eastern Kentucky and Tennessee and Western Virginia in America are analogous to the vendetta.

VENDOME, *vəndōm'*, COLUMN, 142 feet high, stands in Paris, in the Place de la Vendome. It was built in 1811 by Napoleon's order, was later thrown down by the communists, but the preserved pieces were re-erected on the same spot in 1875. The masonry column is set with 900 feet of bronze, made from 1,200 melted captured cannon, depicting memorable scenes in the Napoleonic campaigns from 1806 to 1810. The Place Vendome was named for the Duke of Vendome, who as a member of a noble house of the old French kingdom served his country in many wars.

VENEEER, a thin layer of hard wood, as mahogany, rosewood or maple, glued to the surface of wood of a commoner sort, to give the whole the appearance of being of the more valuable material. It is used for furniture and some interior finishings. Owing to recent improvements in sawing machinery, layers can be obtained that are almost as thin as paper. A good piece of veneer, contrary to popular belief, may be more serviceable than solid wood, for the reason that it is less likely to warp and crack.

VENETIAN, *vənēshən*, SCHOOL OF PAINTING. See PAINTING.



Statue of
Simon Bolivar

VENEZUELA, *vənəzūlə*, is, a republic of South America, officially known as the UNITED STATES or VENEZUELA, lying north of Brazil and north and east of Colombia. The coast line, which borders on the Caribbean Sea, has a number of important indentations, the largest being the Gulf of Venezuela and the Gulf of Paria. The country contains twenty-two states, two territories and a Federal district in which the capital is located. Its greatest extent from northeast to southwest is about 925 miles, and from north to south, 725 miles. Having an area of 393,976 square miles, it is the seventh country of South America in area, and is but little smaller than California, Montana and Oregon combined.

The People. By far the largest proportion of the inhabitants are Indians. Among the *mestizos*, or natives, there are many of negro blood. The whites are of Spanish descent, they represent the culture and customs of Spain, and constitute the ruling class. The country is unevenly populated, most of the people living in the agricultural and mountainous regions of the northwest. The interior is largely unexplored and uninhabited. Spanish is the prevailing language. A 1932 estimate showed a population of 3,261,734. The Roman Catholic is the leading Church, but all faiths are tolerated.

Education is free and compulsory, but the elementary schools are poor, and the attendance laws are not enforced. In 1933 there were only 121,000 pupils in the elementary schools. There were fifty-eight secondary schools for boys, thirty-eight for girls and six for both sexes. At Caracas, the capital, there is a normal school for men and one for women. There were also thirty-four schools for higher instruction and twenty-one academies. There are universities at Caracas and Mérida. There are also military, commercial and other schools in the various cities. But notwithstanding all these institutions and efforts to educate the youth, it is estimated that at least three-fourths of the inhabitants are unable to read and write.

Surface and Drainage. Venezuela is naturally divided into three surface regions. These are the highland region in the northwest, the Guiana highlands in the southeast and the Orinoco valley between. The highland region, in the northwest, is formed by two ranges of the Andes Mountains, one of which extends directly north and south and forms the boundary between Venezuela and Colombia. This range contains some summits with an altitude of 10,000 feet. The other range enters the country near the headwaters of the Orinoco and extends north-easterly to the Gulf of Trist. This range contains the highest land in the country; some of the peaks have an altitude of over 15,000 feet and are capped with perpetual snow. Between these ranges of the Andes is the low depression occupied by Lake Maracaibo, which is directly connected with the sea. The boundary between Venezuela and Brazil is formed by the Parima and Pacaraima mountains, which rise to altitudes varying from 6,000 to 11,000 feet. From these ranges the land gradually descends to the basin of the Orinoco. This great interior is divided into the lowlands, along the lower part of the river's course, and the llanos, which lie chiefly north of the river and between it and the Andes. A portion of this region is yet unexplored, but it is supposed to consist of rolling plains and hills, heavily covered with forests.

Venezuela is supposed to have over 1,000 rivers and is perhaps more completely watered than any other country of South America. Chief among these rivers is the Orinoco, flowing through the middle of the country, and its chief tributaries, the Apure, the Meta and the Rio Negro, the last of which is connected with the Amazon by the Casiquiare. The Orinoco and its chief tributaries, all of which are navigable, furnish an outlet not only for the interior of Venezuela, but for a portion of Colombia as well. There are a number of less important streams flowing into the Caribbean Sea. Of the lakes, Maracaibo, in the northwestern part, is the largest and most important.

Climate. The climate of Venezuela depends upon altitude more than upon latitude. The varying elevations of the country divide it into three climate regions. The first is the lowland region, which extends from sea level to an altitude of 2,300 feet. This has a hot, tropical climate, with a mean annual

temperature of about 77°. The second is the region of the interior, ranging in altitude from 2,300 to 6,500 feet. This region has a salubrious, temperate climate, with a mean temperature of about 65° and with a comparatively narrow range of temperature, the thermometer seldom rising above 80° or falling below 60°. In the highlands of the mountains is a cold region, which ranges in mean temperature from near freezing point to that of perpetual snow. There are two seasons, the rainy and the dry. During the rainy season the lowlands and most of the interior receive copious rain, in some sections sufficient to flood the country. Along the coast and the lower courses of the rivers the climate is somewhat unhealthful, but the temperate regions of the interior are pleasant and healthful, even to those who are accustomed to temperate latitudes.

Mineral Resources. The country contains large deposits of minerals. Gold is found in the Yaracuy territory and is mined to a considerable extent, the annual output is now not far from 92,000 ounces. Silver mines occur in the central, southern and southwestern parts of the country, while copper and iron are widely distributed. Some tin is also found. Other minerals of importance are sulphur, coal and kaolin. There are a number of salt mines in the country, and they are worked by the government. In petroleum production Venezuela is now the second country in the world—about 120,000,000 barrels a year. There are valuable deposits of asphalt on the island of Trinidad, in the vicinity of Maracaibo and in the State of Bermudez. This is the richest asphalt region in the world. Granite, marble and other building stones are widely distributed over the country. Lack of capital and transportation facilities has thus far prevented the exploitation of the mineral industries.

Agriculture. Agriculture is the chief occupation of the inhabitants. However, only about one-ninth of the surface is under cultivation. The chief crops are coffee, cacao, sugar cane, cereals, fruits, beans, potatoes and other vegetables. Tobacco is successfully cultivated in the lowlands, and the forests furnish valuable products for export, chief among which are copra, vanilla and rubber. In general, agriculture is in a backward state. Primitive implements and methods are used, and but poor returns are received for the capital and labor invested. The large areas

of pasture land particularly adapt the country to cattle raising, and thus is one of the most important branches of agricultural industry. The country also has large numbers of horses, goats and sheep.

Manufactures. The manufactures are comparatively unimportant and are confined to the larger cities. The chief industries are the manufacture of cotton goods, shoes, hats, carriages, furniture and agricultural implements. The country also has a number of breweries and distilleries. Refrigerating plants for supplying meat for shipment have been established at Puerto Cabello and Baranquilla, and a coconut butter and oil factory has been opened at Cumana. The most important manufacturing industries are exploited by foreign capital and are under foreign management.

Transportation. The interior is reached by the Orinoco and its navigable tributaries. Much advancement within recent years has been made in road-building. Motoring is possible now on 5,000 miles of highway. Caracas is joined with its seaport, La Guaira, by railway. A few other interior towns are also connected with seaports in this way. In all, the country has over 600 miles of railway in operation. Through a French cable it has communication with the rest of the world, and the cities and towns have telegraph, telephone, and radio service.

The leading seaports are connected by steamer with the ports of Europe and the United States. The commerce of the country is not as great as its resources and population would warrant. The chief article of export is coffee. Other important exports include cacao, hides, deer and goat skins, rubber, balata, tobacco, fustic and other forest products. Some cattle are shipped to Cuba. Most of the coffee and hides go to the United States. The imports consist of foodstuffs, manufactured goods and machinery.

Government. The government is republican in form. The present constitution was adopted in 1914. The head of the executive department is the President, who is elected for seven years and is assisted by a Cabinet of Ministers, through whom he acts. The members of the council are appointed by Congress every two years, and the President is chosen by the Congress. The legislative power is vested in a Congress of two houses, a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies. The

members of the Senate are apportioned two to each state and district, and are elected for three years. The Deputies are apportioned according to population, one to every 35,000 and one every 15,000 additional inhabitants, and are elected by universal suffrage. No state is deprived of a Deputy if its population is less than 35,000. Each province or state has its own legislature and executive, while the unorganized territories and colonies are governed by an executive appointed by the national government.

History. The coast of Venezuela was first seen by Columbus in 1498. The following year it was more carefully examined by Vespuenus, who gave the region the name it now bears, which means Little Venice; it was applied because of the discovery of an Indian village built on palisades over the waters of Lake Maracaibo. The first Spanish settlement was made in 1527, and for more than two centuries the country was a Spanish colony, during which time it suffered from change of rulers and internal dissensions. The early Spaniards treated the natives in a most cruel manner and enslaved many of them. The struggle for independence began early in the nineteenth century and was completed by the efforts of the patriots under Bolivar in 1821, when Venezuela and New Granada united under one government and formed the country of Colombia. In 1839 Venezuela seceded and became an independent republic. The country has always suffered from frequent revolutions and rebellions. It has also had several disputes with European powers concerning boundary lines. The last of these assumed such importance that in 1894 the United States recognized the seriousness of the contention between Venezuela and Great Britain and suggested to the latter country that the dispute be settled by arbitration. This was finally agreed to, and the question was submitted to a special tribunal, which in 1899 made final settlement of the boundary line between Venezuela and British Guiana.

In 1897 a serious political disturbance began, which led, two years later, to a rebellion. This became so widespread that it threatened the existence of the established government, but in October, 1902, the revolutionists suffered a serious defeat, and their army was dispersed. In 1902 the country had a serious dispute with France, Germany and Great Britain over the payment of claims.

due subjects of these several nations, and in December Great Britain and Germany combined in a naval demonstration and blockaded some of the Venezuelan ports. Through the intercession of the United States, however, all parties agreed to submit the dispute to the court of arbitration at The Hague, and the points in dispute were satisfactorily adjusted.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

Bolívar, Simón	Maracaibo
Caracas	Trinidad

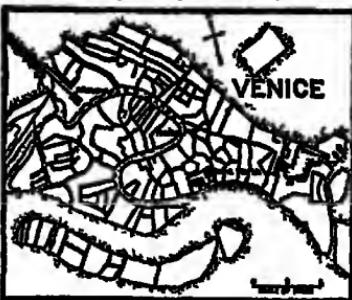
VENICE, *ven'is*, ITALY, now called Venezia, a city famed for its unique character and splendid art treasures. Venice, built on a cluster of islands, has canals for its principal streets, and more bridges than any other city in the world. Gondolas and other boats take the place of cars, street cars and automobiles. The city lies in a sheltered lagoon on the northwestern shore of the Adriatic Sea, 164 miles by rail east of Milan. The islands on which it is built number 120, and are divided into two main groups, between which flows the celebrated Grand Canal. This canal, which is the principal thoroughfare, passes through the city in the form of a letter *S* and divides it into two nearly equal parts. The canal is crossed by four bridges, the chief of which is the Rialto. There are 146 smaller canals, by means of which all parts of the city can be reached by boat.

The description which follows applies to Venice as it exists in normal years. During the World War it was repeatedly attacked by airplanes, and was on one occasion threatened with capture. Its most valuable art treasures were removed to Rome and other interior centers, but these were returned at the close of the war.

The Piazza, or Square of Saint Mark's, is the center of interest. This is the great center of business and amusement. It is 576 feet long, 209 feet wide on one side and 185 feet wide on the other. The east side is faced by the Cathedral of Saint Mark's, one of the most renowned structures of its kind in the world. On the north and south sides of the square are the palaces formerly occupied by the procurators of the cathedral, and they now form a part of the royal palace. These buildings contain many rare paintings by some of the most celebrated artists of Venice, including Tintoretto and Paul Veronese. The famous Campanile, which fell in 1902, and was rebuilt, also faces the square. Another object of interest facing

the square is the clock tower, built in 1496 and surmounted by two bronze figures, which strike the hours on a large bell.

Among the churches of special interest is that of Santa Maria della Salute, which contains excellent paintings of Titian, including



his masterpiece, *The Assumption of the Virgin*, and *The Presentation in the Temple*. The Church of San Sebastiano is celebrated for its altarpieces by Paul Veronese, and the Friari, a church built for the friars, is interesting for its size and because it is a good representation of the Italian Gothic style of architecture. It contains many monuments and pictures. The palaces are of no less interest than the churches. Of these the palace of the Doges, originally built in 800, but several times destroyed and rebuilt, is the most important. During the time of Venice's greatest prosperity, this was the residence of its rulers. It now contains many treasures of art. From the rear of this palace the celebrated "Bridge of Sighs" leads to the prison, which is still in use. Many of the palaces are now used for other purposes, serving as hotels, museums and office buildings. The Academy of Fine Arts is also of great interest, because it contains one of the most valuable collections of paintings found in Europe. The Rialto is the principal commercial street and typically represents the life of the city. The bridge of this name crosses the Grand Canal at the point where the first settlement was made.

Modern Venice is of considerable commercial importance. The manufactures include lace, tapestries, mosaics, bronzes, jewelry and wood-carvings among its finer wares, and cotton and woolen goods, chemicals, heavy machinery and clocks among its larger industries. There is also some shipbuilding, and glassware is manufactured.

The islands occupied by the city were formerly a refuge from the hordes of barbarians which invaded Italy from the north. It is supposed that the first settlement was made about the middle of the fifth century, but there is no authentic record of the fact. In the sixth century Venice was independent, though it was tributary to the Eastern Empire. It was obliged to defend itself from pirates and from the Lombards of Italy, and because of this an organized government was formed and the leader or ruler, entitled *doge*, was selected. The Crusades gave the city a great impetus, because it became a commercial center for these military movements.

During the Middle Ages Venice had increased in commercial importance and power until considerable surrounding territory of the mainland was under its control, and just previous to the discovery of America it was the leading commercial city of Europe. From that time its influence began to wane. The Turks captured Constantinople and cut off much of the trade from the East. A route to India around the Cape of Good Hope also brought much of that trade to Portugal, and the commerce which had entered Europe through Venetian harbors now came through Genoa and other cities to the west. In 1797 the Venetian Republic was deprived of its independence by Napoleon, and most of the possessions were given to Austria. Within a few years the Austrians ceded Venice to Italy. Between this time and 1866, the city was alternately under the rule of Austria and Italy, until finally by vote of the inhabitants it was joined to Italy.

The proximity of Venice to the war zone during the World War, especially after the Austro-German drive of 1917, caused great anxiety as to its fate, but it was never captured. However, the uncertain conditions caused thousands of its inhabitants to flee, and until the close of the war it retained only the memories of its former glory and activity. Time and peace have restored its prosperity and made it again the mecca of art lovers and tourists. In 1921 the population was 171,665, ten years later it had increased to 260,250.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

Adriatic Sea	Doge
Bridge of Sighs	Saint Mark's
Campanile	Cathedral of

VENIZELOS, *ven i'zə lōs*, Eleutherios (1864-1936), an eminent Greek lawyer and

statesman, through whose influence Greece was brought into the World War on the side of the entente allies, was born of humble parentage on the island of Crete. He was educated in Crete, Crete and the University of Athens. After completing his education Venizelos returned to Crete, and at the age of twenty-three was elected to the assembly, where he soon became the leader of the liberal party. In 1910 he removed to Athens to become the leader of a party founded by the Military League, which was working for constitutional reform. Within a year he was chosen Prime Minister.

In 1913 King Constantine, whose wife was a sister of Emperor William II, ascended the throne of Greece. At the outbreak of the World War, Venizelos led the movement to unite Greece with the entente allies, but Constantine advocated strict neutrality. Venizelos resigned in March, 1915, since he and the king could not work together. He was, however, persuaded to form a new Ministry, when Bulgaria entered the war against Serbia, he insisted that the Greek forces be mobilized, and accomplished his purpose in spite of the king's opposition. Since Greece was bound by treaty to go to the aid of Serbia if it were attacked by Bulgaria, Venizelos insisted that this agreement be fulfilled. Constantine refused his consent, and the Prime Minister again resigned.

In September, 1916, Venizelos and his followers set up a provisional government at Canea, but later transferred it to Saloniki. When Constantine was forced to abdicate in 1917, Venizelos was returned to power and Greece joined the forces against the Central Powers. He represented his country at the peace conference at Versailles in 1919. In 1925 Venizelos inspired a revolution against the government, which failed, and he sought refuge in Paris.

VENTILATION, *vən tē'lyā shən*. See HEATING AND VENTILATION.

VENTRILLOQUISM, *vən tril'ō kwiz'm*, the art of speaking in such a way that the voice seems to come not from the speaker but from another source. Long practice is necessary to develop the art to perfection. The ventriloquist is able to "throw his voice," or produce the illusion of distance chiefly by proper control of his larynx. He draws a full breath, speaks without moving the muscles of his face, neck or chest, expelling the air through a narrow grotto. The ven-

triloquist's success depends largely on his skill in directing the imagination of his audience. The human ear is not quick to detect the direction from which a sound comes, and if a listener's attention is directed to a particular location his imagination is apt to associate it with the sound he hears.

VENUE, CHANGE OF, a change in the county or judicial district in which a case in law is brought to trial. It is made for the convenience of witnesses or on motion of the defense because prejudice on the part of the court or community precludes a fair trial in the jurisdiction where the action is brought. Change of venue is regulated by statute.

VENUS, the Roman name for the goddess of love. The Greeks called her APHRODITE. By some accounts she was the daughter of Jupiter, but according to the most popular legend she was born from the sea foam, near the island of Cythera. She was brought up by the nymphs in their ocean caves, and when she had attained the fulness of her size and beauty, she was conducted to Olympus, where she excited the greatest admiration. All of the gods wished to marry her, but she scorned them all, and as a punishment she was compelled by Jupiter to marry Vulcan, the ugliest of the gods. He gained no great happiness from the union, for Venus always despised him and bestowed her love on Mars and on the mortals Adonis and Anchises. Cupid was her son by Mars, and Aeneas was her son by Anchises. Venus was the special protectress of all young people who were in love, but she does not seem to have continued her interest in their affairs after they were once married. She was consequently chiefly worshiped by young people.

VENUS, one of the smallest but the most brilliant and conspicuous of the planets, second from the sun, its orbit lying between Mercury and the Earth. To the ancients Venus was known as *Lucifer*, morning star, and *Hesperus*, evening star, according as it was seen after sunset or before sunrise. As evening star on clear moonless nights it may be observed to cast a shadow, its reflecting power being three times as great as that of the moon, due probably to a dense atmosphere and the presence of many clouds. The diameter of Venus is 7,700 miles, and it is 87,200,000 miles distant from the sun. Its sidereal revolution is performed in 225

days, its rotation period remains in doubt, because of difficulty of observation. It has various phases, according to the position it occupies, appearing as a thin crescent, gradually increasing to a full circle and then decreasing until it disappears.

Transit of Venus, the passage of the planet Venus across the disk of the sun, an occurrence of unsurpassed interest to astronomers and the entire scientific world. A full transit of Venus across the center of the sun's disk occupies about eight hours, the time being shortened when it occurs nearer the edge of the disk. Transits of Venus were observed in 1874 and 1882, and will occur again in 2004 and 2012.

VENUS DE MILO. See SCULPTURE.

VENUS'S FLOWER BASKET, a beautiful sponge, whose skeleton looks like spun glass, woven into an exquisite pattern, so delicate and white that one can scarcely believe it to be a natural skeleton. It is found in the deep sea near the Philippines Islands.

VENUS'S FLYTRAP, or DIONAEA, a plant of the sundew family, the leaves of which serve as traps for insects, upon which the plant feeds. It grows in

the sandy soil of the North Carolina coast, and the insects it entraps are necessary to supply it with the nitrogen lacking in the earth. A flower stalk bearing a cluster of small white flowers rises from a rosette of leaves which spring directly from the ground. Each leaf is divided into two parts, the lower, flat and blade-like in appearance, and the upper, a roundish portion, consisting of two lobes, divided by a midrib. On the surfaces of the lobes are sensitive, hair-like processes, and along the edges are sharp bristles. When an insect alights on one of these sensitive hairs, the two lobes come together like a trap. A fluid is excreted by means of which the plant assimilates the juices of the animal. When the food is exhausted the leaf opens. After a leaf has captured several insects it loses its vitality and dies. See SUNDAW.



VERA CRUZ, *ve'rah kroos*, Mexico, the chief seaport of the republic, situated on an arm of the Gulf of Mexico, about 120 miles east of Mexico City. Though the site is low and sandy and the climate somewhat unhealthful, the construction of sanitation and port works has greatly improved conditions and has prevented the recurrence of periodic outbreaks of yellow fever. At the entrance of the fine harbor is the picturesque old fortress of San Juan de Ulloa, formerly used as a prison, but now only an interesting relic of colonial days. The city itself, with its encircling wall built of coral, is very attractive. Buildings of recent construction include a customhouse and a post and telegraph office, both constructed of cement, and the handsome building of the general lighthouse board, erected on land reclaimed from the sea. The dwelling houses of Vera Cruz are built of coral limestone in Spanish style.

The streets of the city are narrow, but are straight and well-kept, and are paved with asphalt over a wide area. Liberty Boulevard is the handsomest thoroughfare, and there are two public gardens. Prominent institutions include Vera Cruz Institute (a high school), the naval school, the only one of the kind in Mexico, the public library and a hospital. There are several factories, and fishing is an important occupation. Vera Cruz has a large, commodious harbor, with modern docks and other improvements, and enjoys a large general trade. Regular lines of steamers from the United States, the West Indies and Europe visit the port, and four railway lines meet here.

The city was founded by Cortes in 1520. During the Mexican War it was captured by Americans, and in 1814 it was temporarily occupied by United States marines as a result of Huerca's insult to the flag (see Mexico, subhead History). To the Americans chief credit is due for making the city sanitary, for during their occupation they cleaned it thoroughly. Population, 1930, 71,888.

VERB. The verb is that part of speech which expresses action or that tells what some object is or does, as, "The boy runs," "The man left the stone," "Flies swim," "He suffers much," "The leaves are green." Verbs usually have the power of indicating time and mode, by means of tenses and moods,

these varying in the different languages, as does also the conjugation, or system of verbal inflections and forms as a whole.

According to their relation to objects, verbs are classed as *transitive* and *intransitive*. A transitive verb may take an object, as "John struck Harry." An intransitive verb may not or cannot take an object, as "The tree falls." Some verbs are used both transitively and intransitively, as "The boy studies" and "The boy studies his lesson." According to their form in different tenses, verbs are *regular* or *irregular*. A regular verb forms its past tense and past participle by adding *ed* or *ed* to the present tense form, as *live*, *lived*. Irregular verbs form their past tense and past participle otherwise, as *give*, *gave*.

Transitive verbs are in the active or *passive voices*, according to their representation of the subject as *acting* or as *being acted upon*, as "The sun attracts the earth," "The earth is attracted by the sun." Auxiliary verbs are those used with principal verbs to indicate mood and tense, as "The man is here," "The man was here yesterday," "I will go tomorrow." Inflection of a verb is giving the changes in form to denote person, number and tense. Conjugation is the process of systematically carrying a verb through all its different moods, tenses, persons and numbers, in both active and passive voices, if it is a transitive verb.

VERBENA, *ver'be'nah*, a genus of tropical and subtropical American plants of the verbena family, several species of which are cultivated for the beauty of their flowers. The cultivated varieties have creeping or spreading stems and bear their blossoms in dense, showy spikes, of almost every color except yellow. The wild varieties are often troublesome as weeds. The verbena of the perfumers is the lemon grass, from which the oil of verbena is extracted.

VERDI, *ver'de*, Giuseppe (1813-1901), the greatest composer of opera Italy has produced. He was born at Roncole, near Parma, the son of a poor storekeeper. He early showed a fondness for music, and at the age of eight began his studies with the village organist. Later he was taught for three years by the organist of a neighboring village. Verdi then went to Milan and placed himself under the conductor of the famous Scala Theater. In 1839 an opera of his was accepted by the Scala management, and the price paid for it—about four

hundred dollars—was more money than the composer had ever before possessed in all the combined years of his life. Verdi had married some years previously, and the struggle with poverty had been a hard one.

With the acceptance of his first opera and commissions for new ones, the eve of a better day seemed at hand. Then suddenly his wife and both of his children died. After a long period of inactivity which followed this crushing loss, the composer returned to his labors with redoubled energy and produced in succession *The Corsair*, *Rigoletto*, *Il Trovatore* and *La Traviata*, and in a few years Verdi found himself a rich man. In 1870 the khedive of Egypt commissioned from him an opera for the opening of a Cairo Theater, and *Aida* was written. This is considered his best work. Later operas were *Othello* and *Falstaff*, both founded on the Shakespearean dramas of the same names. No other composer of opera has so endeared himself to the masses as has Verdi. The haunting melodies of *Il Trovatore* and of others scarcely less famous are known throughout the world.

VERDIGRIS, *ver' dī grēz*, a greenish substance that forms on copper when exposed to acetic acid. It is used principally in the composition of paints and Paris Green, in the manufacture of dyes and as an ointment, or liniment. Taken internally, it is poisonous. White of egg and milk are antidotes.

VERDUN, *ver'dūn*, FRANCE, a fortified city, on an almost direct line between Paris and Metz, 175 miles from the former, and on the Meuse River. Its fame is not derived from its size or from its industrial importance, but because it has been "a rock of history, around which the storms of battle have raged repeatedly." It had a population of about 21,000 in 1914, its industrial activity included a few factories which produced hardware, leather goods, and confections, and liquor was distilled. In 1933, fifteen years after the devastation wrought by the World War, its people had not recovered from the disaster, for the population



GIUSEPPE VERDI

was then only 13,000. Other sieges had the city withstood, but between 1914 and 1918, Verdun was the center of the German offensive in its attempts to reach Paris, and its destruction was almost complete. But the long siege failed. (See below.)

Battle of Verdun. After the war of 1870-1871, Verdun was made a first-class fortress, having about it a thirty-mile ring of sixteen large forts and twenty smaller works. The great attack on the outer defenses was begun in February, 1916. General Pétain commanded the French forces. During seven months of the most sanguinary fighting, from February to September, the Germans gained 130 square miles of territory, but failed to capture the heart of the fortress, had they succeeded they would have made a breach in the allied defense of Paris. In October a counter-attack under General Nivelle was begun, which was followed by a second offensive in December. The French succeeded in reaching the second line of defenses by February, 1917, and, after a period of inactivity, began a third offensive in August. A succession of smashing blows drove the Germans back until all the dominating positions were in French hands. The Battle of Verdun is counted a great allied victory. The losses were exceedingly heavy on both sides; it is believed the Germans lost over half a million men.

VERESTCHAGIN, *ver'eskchag'in* VASILI (1842-1904), a Russian painter, noted especially for his pictures of war scenes. He was born at Novgorod, and was educated in Saint Petersburg (Petrograd) and in France and Germany. Among his productions are a series of paintings based on the expedition of 1867 against the Central Asian provinces, *The Departure of Napoleon from Moscow* and *Roosevelt at the Head of the Rough Riders*. Verestchagin depicted the cruel side of war with remarkable realism. He was killed in the Russo-Japanese War, while on a battleship which was sunk by the Japanese.

VERGIL, *ver'jil* (70-19 B.C.), the common designation of Publius Vergilius Maro, a great Roman poet, author of the *Aeneid*. He was born near Mantua, in northern Italy, and was the son of a small land-owner. His education, which was careful and thorough, was received at Cremona, Milan, Naples and Rome, where he became thoroughly acquainted with the Epicurean philosophy. A

naturally retiring disposition and a delicate constitution, together with the fact of his not being by birth a Roman citizen, would have checked any aspirations he might have had to the calling of the soldier, the orator or the statesman. He retired to his father's estate, with the intention of passing his life in the pursuit of poetry and agriculture, but was rudely disturbed by the allotment of his farm to the soldiers of Octavius, after the Battle of Philippi (42 b. c.). He recovered it through the aid of Asinius Pollio, the Roman governor, but further troubles arose, and he abandoned it, going at the instance of friends to Rome, where soon afterward he became acquainted with Maecenas and Octavius, to whom Pollio had recommended him. Through these powerful friends he received an estate in Campania and was enabled to devote his life to his favorite pursuits.

Vergil had become a great favorite of Octavius, and when, after the Battle of Actium (31 b. c.), the latter became Augustus, the poet was not forgotten. It was under the encouragement and patronage of the emperor that Vergil's greatest work, the *Aeneid*, was written; and indeed only the firm establishment of the Empire and the glorious achievements of Augustus in war and peace could have produced such an epic. During the years of its composition the poet recited selections before the imperial household. When the *Aeneid* was brought to a close, Vergil went to Athens, intending to spend a few years in revising the poem and completing certain unfinished parts. Soon afterward Augustus arrived in Athens from the East, and he induced Vergil to accompany him to Italy. Under the strain of seameyness and exposure to the strong sea air, his delicate constitution broke down, and he barely lived to reach Italy, dying at Brundisium, Sept. 21, 19 b. c. Rather than leave his life-work, the *Aeneid*, imperfect and incomplete, he ordered it burned, but finally yielded to the request of Augustus, that its revision might be entrusted to his friends Taceas and Varrus, who edited it with the utmost care. The first of Vergil's poems of which the authorship is certain are the *Bucolics*, or *Hesiods*. While based on the model of the *Idylls* of Theocritus, these ten poems are by no means solely pastoral in character. Many contain allusions or are entirely devoted to current political events or to matters concerning the poet, the background and language alone

being pastoral. The *Georgics* comprise four books of didactic poems on agricultural subjects. Book I deals with the tilling of the soil; Book II, with the cultivation of fruit trees; Book III tells of horses and cattle, and Book IV treats of bees. The *Georgics* are addressed to Maecenas and were said by some to have been written at his patron's request, the work is the most finished of all Vergil's poetry.

The *Aeneid*, the composition of which probably occupied most of the twelve years between the beginning of Augustus's reign and the poet's death, is Vergil's greatest work, although it is not as highly polished as some of his other poems. In general treatment of character and incident, it is inferior to its Greek models, the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*, but certain parts are very successfully handled; and the whole poem is conceived in a spirit of delicacy, true culture and noble patriotism. In refinement of expression and elegant metrical construction, Vergil has not been surpassed. For an outline of the poem, see *AENEID*.

VERMESS, *ver'meas*, or **WORMS**, that branch of the animal kingdom formerly including all invertebrate creatures (those without backbones) except the insects, but now restricted to such forms as earthworms, sea-worms and leeches. Most of the animals of this division have long, flat or cylindrical bodies, which are divided more or less distinctly into segments which have no limbs. Many of the Vermes are parasites, and some live in the intestines of human beings, where they cause great discomfort. See *ZOOLOGY*.

VERMICELLI, *ver'me che'lli* or *ver'me set'e*. See *MACARONI*.

VERMIFORM, *ver'me form*, **APPENDIX**, a long, slender, wormlike organ, which opens from the colon near its lower end. It is normally from three to four inches in length and is hollow to its tip. It is in the right side of the lower abdomen and projects upward in most cases. It performs no bodily function, but is the source of appendicitis (which see).

VERMILION, a bright red pigment, named from a French word meaning little worm, because formerly crimson, or carmine, was obtained from a small red worm. The vermilion of commerce is obtained by mixing together in a revolving drum, mercury, sulphur and a solution of potash in

water, and heating the mixture to about 115°, when it gradually assumes a red color. Vermilion is a permanent color and can be used with water or oil, but volatilizes at red heat and cannot be used for enamels. Cinnabar, a sulphide of mercury which occurs in large quantities in California, Brazil, Spain, China and other countries, is also a valuable source of vermilion.



VERMONT, the second largest of the New England states, popularly called the GREEN MOUNTAIN STATE, green mountains being an English translation of the French words *verts et mons*, from which Vermont is derived. The state is appropriately named, for its picturesque mountains with their wooded slopes are among the most charming phases of New England scenery. The flower emblem of the state is the red clover.

Location and Area. Vermont lies directly south of the Canadian province of Quebec, and its southern boundary follows the northern Massachusetts line. It is bounded on the east by New Hampshire, from which it is separated by the Connecticut River, and on the west by New York. It is therefore the only New England state having no coast line. The western boundary, however, follows the deepest channels of Lake Champlain for more than one hundred miles, and over half the lake belongs to Vermont. Along the northern boundary the state is ninety miles wide; along the southern, but forty. From north to south it is about 150 miles in extent, and its area is 9,584 square miles, 220 square miles in excess of the area of New Hampshire. Maine, the largest New England state, is over three times as large as Vermont, which ranks forty-second in size among the states of the Union.

People and Cities. In 1930, when the population was 352,428, Vermont was the

forty-second state in number of inhabitants. By the 1930 census the population had grown to 359,611, an increase of 2 per cent, with an average density of 39.4 persons to the square mile, as compared with the average of 41.8 for the entire United States, ranking it forty-fourth in the Union.

About two-fifths of the foreign-born inhabitants, who number about 50,000, are French-Canadians, and consequently the Roman Catholic Church claims the largest number of adherents of any one denomination. Among Protestant bodies, the Congregational, Methodist, Baptist and Episcopal are the most important.

Slightly more than half the population live under rural conditions. Burlington, with a population of 24,789 in 1930, is the largest city. Rutland, Barre and Brattleboro are next in order. Montpelier (7,837 in 1930) is the capital.

Surface and Drainage. The entire state is mountainous, owing to the presence of the Green Mountain range, which extends from the Canadian border into Massachusetts, and to numerous parallel ranges, which extend in a nearly north and south direction. The Taconic range lies in the southwestern part of the state and is parallel to the main range. There are also several short ranges in the northern and eastern sections. The highest peaks of the main range from north to south are Jay, Sterling, Mansfield, Camel's Hump, Lincoln, Pico, Killington, Shrewsbury, Stratton and Haystack, of which Mount Mansfield, with an altitude of 4,408 feet, is the highest. There are forty-one peaks having an altitude of 3,500 feet or more. All of the mountains of the parallel ranges are comparatively low, have rounded summits and are well timbered. These various ranges are separated by low, broad valleys, through which one or more streams flow and which have fairly fertile soil. The lowest point in the state is in the valley of Lake Champlain. In general the surface is a combination of forest-clad hills and mountains, beautiful valleys and sparkling lakes and streams.

The eastern half of the state is drained by the Connecticut River and its tributaries, the most important of these being the Passumpsic, the Waits, the White, the Ottauquechee, the Williams, the Saxtons and the West. The western part of the state is drained into Lake Champlain and thence

into the Saint Lawrence River. The most important streams flowing into the lake are the Missisquoi, the Lamoille, the Winooski and the Otter Creek, the last being the largest river wholly within the state. The southwestern section is drained into the Hudson River by the Battenkill and the Hoosic.

The most important lake is Lake Champlain, more than half of which belongs to Vermont. Other lakes in the Champlain Valley are Bomoseen, Saint Catherine and Dunmore. In the northeastern part of the state is Lake Memphremagog, a portion of which is in Vermont and the remainder in Canada. Southeast of this is Willoughby Lake, renowned for its peculiar surroundings. The lake is about six miles long and lies between two mountains which seem to have been rent asunder in some past geological age. This region also contains numerous other smaller lakes, frequently known as ponds. All of these bodies of water have become favorite summer resorts.

Climate. The climate of Vermont is subject to extreme and sudden changes. In summer the temperature varies from 65° to 90°; in winter it ranges from 18° to 45°. At Burlington the mean annual temperature is 45°. The climate is milder in the Champlain Valley than east of the Green Mountains. During the winter there is often much snow, which in the colder parts of the state covers the ground for three months. The average annual rainfall is thirty-seven inches. The air is clear and pure.

Mineral Resources. The chief mineral wealth of the state is in its quarries. No other state in the Union produces so great a variety or quantity of marble and granite, and Vermont has practically become the center of the marble and granite industries. The value of the annual output of granite exceeds \$3,000,000, the largest quarries are at Barre and Woodbury. The marble industry is chiefly in Rutland County. Roofing and other slate are obtained in large quantities, and the output is of fine quality.

Agriculture. The soil in the valleys along the streams and at the foot of the mountains and hills is usually fertile, though but very little of it compares favorably in this respect with the soils of the great prairie states in the Mississippi Valley. Agriculture is the leading industry of the state. The farms are comparatively small, averaging less than 200 acres, and most of them are tilled by their

owners. Formerly Vermont was known for its production of wheat, oats, corn and potatoes, but since the development of the great agricultural states in the Mississippi Valley, the New England states have been unable to compete in the markets which the Western producers could reach, consequently, in recent years methods and products have been radically changed. Now intensified farming is generally practiced and the raising of wheat has given way to the raising of corn, which is very generally used as ensilage. Dairying is the chief agricultural industry. Excellent qualities of butter and cheese are made, and these find ready market in Boston and other Eastern cities. In the output of these products the state ranks among the first ten. Vermont has always been famed for the excellent breeds of horses produced there, and horses are still raised in large numbers. In some sections the raising of garden vegetables and apples for market is also a profitable industry, and Vermont is unsurpassed in the United States in the quality and quantity of maple sugar produced.

Manufactures. The chief manufacturing industries include dressing stone particularly marble and granite, the manufacture of scales, centered in Saint Johnsbury and in Rutland, the production of flour and other grain mill products, the manufacture of lumber products, and the manufacture of textiles, particularly woolen goods. Since the introduction of electrical power, many small factories have been established within the state, obtaining their power from mountain streams which were previously useless. This has increased the output of manufactures very materially since 1890.

Transportation. The northwestern part of the state finds a ready outlet by water through Lake Champlain and the Hudson River, but these are closed to navigation during the winter season. Lines of railway traverse the state from north to south, both on the eastern and western sides. There are also numerous cross lines so that every county has good railway facilities, and nearly every town is on a line of railway or within ready access of it. The railways of the state are under the control of the Rutland, the Canadian National and the Vermont Central systems, the total mileage is about 1,075. A number of electric lines connect near-by towns.

Government. The legislature consists of a senate of thirty members and a house



Bennington Battle Monument

State Seal

Red Clover,
State FlowerA Quarry
in Vermont

of representatives of 246 members, the latter containing one representative for each town and city within the state. Both senators and representatives are elected every two years. The legislature meets biennially. The executive department consists of a governor, lieutenant-governor, secretary of state, treasurer and auditor, elected by the people for two years. The judiciary consists of a state supreme court of five judges, a superior court of six judges, a chancery court and county courts. The judges of the supreme court, the superior judges and some other officers are elected by the legislature. Women enjoy universal suffrage.

Education. The commissioner of education is at the head of the public school system. The township system is in vogue, in which the town constitutes the smallest unit for school purposes. Supervision is by districts in which several adjoining towns are united. A superintendent who devotes his entire time to the work is appointed for each district. Graded schools are maintained in all the larger towns and villages, most of which have high schools.

The higher institutions of learning are the University of Vermont, at Burlington, with which is connected the State Agricultural College, Middlebury College, at Middlebury, Norwich University at Northfield, Montpelier Seminary, at Montpelier, Goddard Ladies Seminary, at Barre, Saint Johnsbury Academy, at Saint Johnsbury, Vermont Academy, at Saxtons River, and Vermont Academy, at Bakersfield, are among the most prominent academies.

There are several teacher training institutions in Vermont. They are as follows: The University of Vermont—a four-year course, state normal schools at Castleton and Lyndon—two-year and three-year courses, state normal school at Johnson—two-year course.

Institutions. The charitable and correctional institutions of the state include the state penitentiary at Windsor, the woman's reformatory at Rutland, the industrial school at Vergennes, the state asylums for the insane at Waterbury and Brattleboro, the soldiers' home at Bennington, the state sanatorium at Pittsford. There are also ten hospitals under the control of the state authorities.

History. The first white man to enter the territory of Vermont was probably Cham-

Items of Interest on Vermont

About 10,000 of the foreign-born inhabitants came from the British Isles. There are, besides, over 11,000 English-Canadians.

School attendance for 34 weeks is compulsory for children from six to fifteen years of age. No child less than sixteen who has not completed eight grades of school may work in any industrial establishment.

There are about 2,200 public schools in the state and nearly 65,000 enrolled pupils.

Vermont's live stock includes about 250,000 milk cows, 170,000 other cattle, 55,000 horses, 40,000 sheep and 20,000 swine.

The marble quarries were first opened in 1785. They produce half of the marble of the United States.

During the summer months the people in the mountain and lake towns find entertaining the tourists a profitable occupation.

Vermont was the first state to adopt a clause in its constitution prohibiting slavery.

It was the first to be admitted after the adoption of the Federal Constitution.

The present constitution of Vermont was adopted in 1777.

Questions on Vermont

When was Vermont admitted to the Union?

What is the character of the surface of the state?

What is the highest mountain peak? Name the principal rivers.

How has the introduction of electrical power affected the manufacturing industry?

What are the chief agricultural products?

How does Vermont rank in the production of maple sugar? Of marble?

What are the principal manufacturing industries?

For what products are some of the leading cities noted?

Why is the state a favorite summer resort?

plain (1609), but no settlements were made until 1665, when French trading posts were established on the western border. Vermont was the scene of numerous expeditions by both French and English during the French and Indian Wars. After the middle of the eighteenth century, the territory was a cause of dispute between New Hampshire and New York, each claiming jurisdiction over it, by reason of charters and royal grants. On account of the grants of lands made there by New Hampshire, Vermont came to be known as the *Hampshire Grants*. It was finally decided by England that New York had jurisdiction, but the settlers of Vermont, by means of organized militia, known as "Green Mountain Boys," resisted the establishment of the authority of New York. This resulted in several skirmishes.

During the Revolution, Vermont organized its own forces and fought with great effect against the Indians and British in the north. Meantime it set up a claim of independent statehood, and existed as an independent commonwealth for fourteen years, until it was admitted into the Union, March 4, 1791. Its progress during the nineteenth century was constant. Its government in most respects was rather more democratic than that of other New England states. During the Civil War it furnished its full quota of troops, and it was the scene of the operations of the Fenians in 1862 and 1870. In 1852 an amendment prohibiting the sale of intoxicating liquors was adopted, but was repealed in 1902, local option being substituted.

In proportion to its population Vermont has been second to none in the number of eminent men it has furnished the nation. President Calvin Coolidge was her most distinguished son. Admiral George Dewey and Captain Charles E. Clark of the *Oregon* were noted Vermonters; Presidents Chester A. Arthur, Vice Presidents Levi P. Morton and William A. Wheeler and Justin S. Morrill were also among her sons.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

GOVERNMENT	PHYSICAL FEATURES	HISTORY
Barré	Montpelier	
Bennington	Rutland	
Burlington		
	Champlain, Lake	Memphremagog
	Connecticut River	(lake)
	Green Mountains	Taconic Mountains
Allen, Ethan	Green Mountain Boys	
Champlain, Samuel	New Hampshire	(history)

VERMONT, *ver'mont*, a coeducational institution of learning, founded in 1791 at Burlington. In 1882 the university was assured a share in the benefits of the land-grant act passed by Congress, and three years later the Vermont Agricultural College was incorporated with it. "State Agricultural College" is still a part of the legal title of the institution, which is organized into colleges of arts and science, engineering, agriculture and medicine. There is a student enrollment of about 1400, and a faculty of about 200. The library contains more than 160,000 volumes.

VERNE, zhern, JULES (1828-1905), a popular French romancer. He studied law for some time, but afterward began writing short pieces for the stage. He then began to write stories of adventure. The highly

imaginative and fantastic exploits he recounted were given an air of plausibility by the author's manner of presenting them as scientifically possible. His first essay in the vein of the marvelous was *Five Weeks in a Balloon*. This was followed by *Twenty Thousand Leagues under the Sea*, *From the Earth to the Moon*, *Around the World in Eighty Days*, *Michael Strogoff* and *The Mysterious Island*. Most of his books have been translated into the various European languages, and some even into Arabic and Japanese. They will long remain popular for their ingenuity and their lively style.

VERONA, *ver'oh-nah*, ITALY, next to Venice the most famous city in the Venetian plain. The city is so old that an old Roman amphitheater built by the emperor Diocletian still stands, for many years a ruin, eloquent of the dead past, but now restored. This building is over 500 feet long and is 106 feet high; it was built to seat 20,000 people. In the vicinity of the busiest part of the town is a marble tablet marking the spot where the people believe Juliet lived, and to whose house came Romeo. Through the town runs the swiftly-flowing Adige River, which is spanned by seven bridges. Population, 1931, 154,000.



JULES VERNE

VERONESE, və ro'ne'se, PAUL (1528-1588), the popular name of Paolo Cagliari, an eminent Italian artist, born at Verona. He studied painting under his uncle, Antonio Badile, and worked successively in Venice, Rome and other cities of Italy, but Venice was his chief residence. Some idea of his talent may be gained from the fact that he was soon recognized as a rival of Titian and Tintoretto. He was an excellent colorist, as were most of the Venetian school, and he was distinguished by the richness and fertility of his imagination. His pictures are exceedingly numerous and varied in subject. Among his masterpieces are *The Marriage at Cana* (now in the Louvre), *The Calling of Saint Andrew to the Apostleship*, *The Rape of Europa*, *The Family of Darius at the Fest of Alexander*, *Adoration of the Magi*, *Consecration of Saint Nicholas and Saint Helena* and *The Vision of the Invention of the Cross*. The last five mentioned are in the National Gallery. Veronese died at Venice in the full maturity of his genius.

VERONICA, SAINT, a female saint, who, according to legend, met Jesus Christ bending under the weight of the cross and offered him her veil to wipe the sweat from his brow. The divine features were found miraculously impressed on the cloth, and this veil was brought from Palestine to Rome, where it is still preserved by the canons of Saint Peter's. Milan and other places claim they have the genuine veil.

VERRAZANO, *ver'rah-no*, GIOVANNI DA (1485?-1527), a Florentine navigator, about whose life little is known. About 1523 he made his first voyage of discovery, and in 1524 he voyaged to America, probably touching the coast of North Carolina. He wrote a letter to Francis I, describing this voyage, and this letter is almost the only source of information concerning his discoveries. Some accounts relate that Verrazano was hanged as a corsair, others state that he died while preparing for another expedition to America. The exact truth may never be known.

VERSAILLES, *ver'sah'y*, FRANCE, the capital of the department of the Seine-et-Oise, situated twelve miles southwest of Paris. The town is noted as the location of the magnificent Palace of Versailles, erected in 1661 by Louis XIV and since that time the scene of a number of important and dramatic events in the history of France and of the

world. Here, in 1771, the French signed the hard treaty terms which concluded the Franco-German War; in July, 1919, the victorious allies concluded in the same palace peace terms with Germany at the close of the World War (see VERSAILLES, PALACE OF; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF). From 1871 to 1879 Versailles was the seat of government of the republic of France. Population, 1831, 66,850.

VERSAILLES, PALACE OF, the famous residence of the Bourbon court and subsequent place of meeting of many important conferences for the adjustment of national and international affairs, including that following the World War. The palace was built as a residence by Louis XIV in 1661, at a cost of \$100,000,000. It was permanently occupied by the court about 1682 and remained its center for a hundred years, or until the overthrow of the Bourbons at the opening of the French Revolution. Since that time it has been used principally as a vast museum, its collections representing the development of French history and art from the time of Clovis to the present day. Especially interesting is a collection representing the era of the Crusades.

The Versailles palace is three stories high, in form a great square with wings at either side and at the back projecting into its surrounding park. It has an imposing facade a quarter of a mile long, above which are inscribed the words, *A toutes les gloires de la France* ("To all the glories of France"). The extensive Versailles gardens are filled with terraces, fountains, decorative ponds and artificially arranged trees and plants.

With the palace are associated the names of Mme de Pompadour, Mme du Barry and Marie Antoinette. Here was signed the Treaty of 1763 between England, France and Spain on the same day that England recognized the independence of the United States. Here, in 1792, was held the meeting of the States-General which formed the opening act of the French Revolution. During the Siege of Paris, 1870-71, King William of Prussia made his headquarters here, and there he was proclaimed Emperor William I of Germany. Again, in 1919, the interest of the world centered on Versailles, as the conference of the powers adjusted anew the affairs of a world shaken by the four years of the World War, this time with a new diplomacy based on the principles of a League of Nations.



VERSAILLES, TREATY OF, the name of the treaty which formally concluded the World War, negotiated by representatives of the allied powers on the one hand, and those of the central powers, including Turkey, on the other. There were four separate treaty agreements, made with Germany, Austria, Bulgaria and Turkey, respectively. The preliminary work on the agreements was carried on in Paris, but the name Versailles is applied to the treaty because the actual signing of the agreement with Germany, the head of the Central alliance, took place in Versailles, a suburb of Paris. The German treaty was the first one negotiated, and was signed in the famous Hall of Mirrors, in the Palace of Versailles, in the same room where, in 1871, William I was crowned emperor of Germany at the close of the Franco-German War.

The peace conference began sessions at Paris on January 18, 1919. The United States, the British Empire, France, Italy and Japan were represented by five delegates each; Brazil, Belgium and Serbia were represented by three each, and there were two each from China, Greece, Poland, Portugal, the Czechoslovak Republic, Rumania and the kingdom of Hedjaz. Two delegates were allotted respectively to Australia, Canada, South Africa and India, and one to New Zealand, as these British possessions had made great sacrifices for the allied cause. Other minor nations were allowed one delegate each, namely, Siam, Cuba, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Siberia, Nicaragua, Panama and Montenegro. Each delegation acted as a unit. The most influential group consisted of the heads of the American, British, French and Italian commissions—President Woodrow Wilson and Premiers Lloyd-George, Clemenceau and Orlando. They were termed "the big four."

The conference held its sessions in the building of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, meeting in a splendid reception room originally called Salle d'Horloge (Hall of the Clock). It required nearly six months to ne-

gociate a treaty with Germany. On May 7, 1919, 109 days after the associated powers had begun their deliberations, German envoys received the terms on which the victorious powers were willing to make peace. The head of the German commission was Count von Brockdorff-Rantzaus. A period of fifteen days was allotted the German envoys in which to reply to the terms. An extension of this period was granted, however, and German counter proposals were not delivered until May 29. On June 16, a revised version of the treaty, which had been slightly modified, was tendered the Germans, and on that date the delegation started for Germany. The German National Assembly at Weimar ratified the revised treaty on June 22, and on June 28 the terms were signed in Versailles. It was found necessary to appoint a new commission, the original envoys refusing to sign. A summary of the terms follows:

How Germany Paid. Germany was stripped of all colonial possessions, required to cede certain portions of its European domain, and forced to agree to the payment of heavy indemnities.

Territorial Changes. The following changes in Europe were authorized:

To France—Alsace-Lorraine, 5,000 square miles.

To Belgium—Two small districts (Eupen and Malmedy) between Holland and Luxembourg, 352 square miles.

To Poland—Part of Silesia and most of Posen and West Prussia, 12,504 square miles.

To League of Nations—Mouth of Memel River and internationalized area around Danzig, 726 square miles; basin of the Saar (internationalized temporarily), 736 square miles.

Southeastern third of East Prussia, and Vistula River district, 5,725 square miles, voted to join Poland and Czechoslovakia. North half of Schleswig-Holstein peninsula, 2,757 square miles, voted to join Denmark.

France was given the right to use the output of the Saar coal mines for fifteen years. A vote is to be taken at the end of that period to decide the future status of the Saar Valley. (In January, 1935, the people voted to return to German sovereignty.)

The following changes in colonial possessions were authorized:

Togoland and Kamerun—Divided between France and Great Britain.

German East Africa—under the mandate of Great Britain.

German Southwest Africa—under the mandate of Union of South Africa.

German Samoa Islands—under the mandate of New Zealand.

Caroline, Marshall and Ladrones Islands—under the mandate of Japan.

New Guinea—under the mandate of Australia.

Total, about 1,186,800 square miles.

German concessions in China, notably Kiaochow and the Shantung peninsula, were transferred to Japan.

Other Conditions. Germany lost most of its navy and most of its merchant marine, and the army was ordered reduced to 100,000 men. Possession of fourteen submarines cables was ordered relinquished, and sovereignty over the Kiel Canal, the Rhine and other important rivers was lost. Reparation for the damage done by the war thirty-one billion dollars (later reduced, only a little paid, with balance in doubt 15 years later). Luxembourg was freed from the German customs-union. Germany was required to recognize the independence of German Austria and Czechoslovakia, French control in Morocco and the British protectorate in Egypt. Though not admitted as a member, Germany was required to recognize the principle of the League of Nations, the provisions for which occupied the first section of the treaty.

Austrian Settlement. The complete text of the Austrian treaty was handed to the Austrian delegation at Saint-Germain, France, on July 20, the first section having been tendered on June 2.

There were boundary disputes with Jugoslavia, Czechoslovakia and Italy, but eventually Austria was reduced to the following territories:

PROVINCE	AREA (SQ KM.)	POPULATION AT THE TIME
Lower Austria	7,562	3,223,001
Upper Austria	4,626	956,729
Salzburg	2,752	214,200
Styria	6,327	282,644
Carinthia	3,664	685,532
Tirol	4,780	306,604
Vorarlberg	1,005	123,212
Burgenland	1,586	236,381
Total	32,352	8,422,260

Austria's army was limited to 30,000 men, and the country was required to guarantee reparations for damages and to assume a portion of the debt of the old empire.

Turkish Settlement. It was the general opinion that the Turkish Empire should be dismembered, such an act would end the Turkish question that had vexed Europe for more than half a century. Some of the powers desired that the Turks should be forced out of Europe altogether, but finally they were permitted to retain Constantinople and Adrianople, with a small surrounding area.

(9,257 square miles) In Asia Turkey was reduced in size practically to the peninsula of Anatolia, ancient Asia Minor. It lost Palestine, Syria, Mesopotamia (Iraq), the Lebanon, and all of Arabia. Besides Anatolia, it holds only a few small islands in adjacent Mediterranean waters.

Bulgarian Settlement. The little country of Bulgaria had received acquisitions of territory at the conclusion of the Balkan Wars of 1912-1913, but most of these gains were surrendered after its defeat as an ally of Germany in the World War. The Treaty of Neuilly gave the Southern Dobrudja to Rumania, an area on the south went to Greece and deprived Bulgaria of a sea front on the Aegean, to Yugoslavia it lost territory on the west. Its only outlet by water is on the Black Sea.

Later History. It was the determination of the Allied powers to force Germany to pay for the war, in addition to imposing territorial losses. Beyond the tentative \$33,000,000,000 in indemnities, interest charges would increase the payments to an incredible sum. It was a sullen country that faced its almost impossible task. By 1923 its protests were heeded. A commission headed by Gen. Charles G. Dawes reported in 1924 that payments must not be pressed beyond Germany's ability to pay, which was estimated at about \$600,000,000 a year.

By 1929 a crisis impended in connection with payment of war debts to the United States by European powers, the latter contended that they could pay only as German reparations payments continued, and that Germany could not meet its obligations. Another commission headed by Owen D. Young, fixed the total payments at \$8,800,000,000, installments to run for fifty-eight years. With the rise of Hitlerism, Germany gave notice of repudiation of the entire debt and made a demand for a revision of the Versailles treaty. In 1935 the Hitler regime repudiated the treaty, reoccupied the neutral Rhine zone, and gave notice that it would fully rearm the nation.

VERSE, *oīvə*, a line of poetry, or, more commonly but less correctly, a stanza composed of several lines. The term is also used, in its broader sense, to mean the measured and cadenced form of speech or composition adopted in poetry. Verse, as simply cadenced lines, is of great antiquity, but the use of rhymed cadences is comparatively modern.

Blank verse is verse in which the lines do not end in rhymes. For the classifications of verse on the basis of meter, see METER.

VERTEBRATES, or **VERTHERATA**, the highest branch of the animal kingdom, comprising all creatures having backbones. Vertebrates are classified as fishes, amphibians, reptiles, birds and mammals. Their bodies are capable of division into head, trunk and tail, and they have typically four limbs (fins in fishes) and an outer skin that consists of more than one layer of cells. The skeleton is internal, and the central nervous system consists of a nerve cord and brain, to which latter the sense organs are connected. Vertebrates also possess a system of sympathetic nerves, a digestive tract, respiratory organs (gills or lungs), special excretory organs, and reproductive organs, usually with separate sexes.

In the long process of evolution these anatomical essentials have been highly developed and variously differentiated. Not till the Tertiary Period, far down the line of the geological ages, did the mammals appear, while man, the youngest of creatures, is the development of the Pleistocene Age. As man advances in scientific knowledge and mechanical skill, penetrating to every part of the world, the other vertebrates become fewer and fewer, except as he domesticates them and raises them in numbers for use as food, the manufacture of clothing or means of transportation.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

Amphibians	Fish and Fisheries	Reptiles
Birds		Rodents
Carnivora	Mammals	Ungulates
Cetaceans	Mesopriapilla	Zoology
	Primates	

VERTIGO, *vər' tō' gō*, an attack of giddiness, in which stationary objects appear to move in various directions, the person affected finding it difficult to maintain an erect position. It is a common symptom of excessive or defective supply of blood to the brain, as well as of nervous and general debility, though it also frequently arises from the disturbance of the digestive organs. Rapidly whirling the body will produce a severe form of vertigo.

VESPASIAN, *vēs' pā' shē ān* (9-79), emperor of Rome. After serving with distinction in Germany and in Britain, as commander of a legion, he was made consul. He afterward became proconsul of Africa; and on the rebellion of the Jews, he was sent with

an army into Judea. He reduced nearly all Galilee and was preparing to attack Jerusalem when he received news of Nero's death (A.D. 68). Then followed the emperors Galba, Otho and Vitellius, and in A.D. 69. Vespasian was himself elected emperor by the army. He left the siege of Jerusalem to his son Titus and returned to Rome. He immediately reformed the discipline of the army, purified the senatorial and equestrian orders and improved the administration of justice. He was the patron of learned men, particularly Quintilian, Pliny and Josephus. He rebuilt a part of the city, restored the capitol and erected the gigantic amphitheater, the ruins of which are still celebrated under the name of the *Colosseum*.

VESPUCCI, *vee poo' che*, Amerigo See
American Vespuccius

VESTA, a Roman divinity, the goddess of the hearth. She was worshiped, along with the Penates, at every family meal, when the household assembled round the hearth, which was in the center of the room. Her public sanctuary was in the Forum, and the sacred fire was kept constantly burning in it by the vestal virgins, her priestesses. A special building, near the temple, was set aside as the dwelling of the vestals. Each community had a hearth, on which was kept constantly alight the sacred fire of Vesta, and colonists setting out from a city took with them some of the old fire to kindle a flame in their new home. Few legends are connected with Vesta.

VESUVIUS, *as sv' vs ws*, the only active volcano in Europe, situated on the Bay of Naples, in Italy. Its first recorded eruption took place in A. D. 79, when the city of Pompeii was buried under twenty feet of loose ashes and Herculaneum was covered by a torrent of mud. The elder Pliny, in command of the Roman fleet at Misenum, sailed to the relief of the distressed inhabitants, but was suffocated with them by volcanic vapors. The catastrophe is graphically described by his son, the younger Pliny, in two letters written to Tacitus, long after the event.

Another eruption of Vesuvius occurred in the year of 472, when slaves were carried as far as Constantinople. In 1794 and in 1822 there were also violent eruptions, and a series of lesser eruptions took place in the latter part of the last century, beginning with 1865. The latest eruption occurred in 1906. The mountain is a state of constant activity,

and, being of easy access, has been studied by more scientists and visited by more tourists than any other volcano in the world. An electric railway takes passengers from Naples to within 450 feet of the crater, and under direction of a guide visitors may descend some distance into the crater. An observatory is located on the west shoulder of the mountain, at an elevation of 2,200 feet.

Geologically, Vesuvius is thought to be of recent origin. It is a solitary mountain, with a base about thirty miles in circumference and is surmounted by two summits. The higher one, Vesuvius proper, is the cone from which are emitted the streams of lava. The lower one, known as Mount Somma, partly encloses the active cone. The mountain varies in height according to the amount of material thrown out or carried away by eruptions, averaging about 4,000 feet above the sea level.

Related Articles Consult the following titles for additional information
Herculaneum **Pompeii**
Naples **Volcano**

VETCH, a common name, rather loosely applied to several genera of climbing plants that are natives of the temperate zones. Many of them have been cultivated as forage plants for ages, and some yield edible seeds. Recently several species have been introduced into the United States for winter forage, the *hairy vetch* makes a good crop yielding from two to four tons of hay an acre. In Europe *spring vetch*, or *tare*, is more common. The plant has bluish-pink flowers resembling those of the pea, and compound leaves composed of twenty or thirty leaflets.

VETERINARY MEDICINE, the art which deals with the nature, causes and treatment of the disorders of the domestic animals. The first veterinary school was instituted in 1762 at Lyons, France, in 1766 that at Alfort, near Paris, was opened. A similar institution was established at London in 1791, and in the year following, one in Berlin. In the United States veterinary chairs have been added to the University of Pennsylvania, Cornell University and to several other leading universities, as well as to many of the schools of agriculture. Besides these, there are many private schools that give thorough instruction. Recently the requirements of admission to veterinary courses have been materially advanced, and in the better schools four-year courses of study are required.

The veterinarian must have a thorough knowledge of the anatomy and physiology of domestic animals, and of the causes and effects of the diseases common to them. Moreover, he must be a keen observer, for he must rely solely upon his observation in making a diagnosis, the horse or the sow cannot tell him how it feels or where pain is located. All states and the Canadian provinces require every veterinarian to possess a diploma from an approved school, or to take a rigid examination before he is allowed to practice.

One of the most valuable services that the veterinarian renders is the detection and prevention of contagious diseases among domestic animals, and his services for this purpose are usually authorized by the state, which maintains a board or commission, whose duty it is to see that the laws for preventing the spread of contagious diseases among domestic animals are enforced.

The Bureau of Animal Industry, in the United States Department of Agriculture, takes care of veterinary questions that come before the government, and the states and large cities have veterinarians who investigate diseases and attend to the enforcement of the veterinary laws of the districts in which they have power. Important documents are issued for public circulation by the Bureau of Animal Industry and by the experiment stations and boards of agriculture in the several states. In its progress veterinary medicine has kept pace with human medicine.

VETO, from the Latin, meaning *I forbid*, refers to the power of a chief executive to negative any legal measure originating in a lawmaking body. There are several forms of veto power, which may all be included in two main classes—absolute and limited. In the case of the former the executive action is final, in the case of the latter the legislature may override the executive decision, if an extraordinary majority is in favor of the bill.

In Great Britain the veto of the ruler is absolute, but the power has not been exercised since 1708. In France the veto is limited, of the form known as suspensive, that is, the President may suspend the operation of a law and demand its reconsideration. A similar form of limited veto is in effect in the United States, where the Presidential veto may be overridden by a two-thirds vote of the members of each house of Congress.

VIADUCT, a structure for carrying a waterway or roadway across a valley or low-

land or over a public highway. Viaducts of the older type usually consist of a series of arches of brick work, masonry or spans of steel, but of late they have been largely constructed of reinforced concrete. The viaduct crossing the Kaw River valley, connecting Kansas City, Mo., and Kansas City, Kan., has a length of 8,400 feet. The viaduct at Des Moines, Iowa, used by the Chicago & North Western Railroad, is 2,885 feet in length. Other notable viaducts are those over Tunkhannock Creek and Martin's Creek on the Lackawanna road, the one across the Pecos River in Texas, the viaduct over the White Elster at Goltach, Saxony, and that at Gokteik, Burma. See BRIDGE.

VIC'AR, in a general sense, a representative or deputy authorized to perform the duties of another. In the Church of England a vicar is the priest of a parish, who receives only the smaller tithes, or a salary. In the United States the large city parishes which support two or more churches maintain a vicar for the clerical duties of the chapels.

In the Roman Catholic Church *vicar apostolic* is a bishop who possesses no diocese, but who exercises jurisdiction over a certain district by direct authority of the pope; *vicar-general* is the official assistant of a bishop or archbishop. The Pope calls himself the *Vicar of Christ on earth*.

VICE-ADMIRAL. See ADMIRAL.

VICE-PRESIDENT, the official of the United States government who is second in executive authority to the President. The Vice-President is chosen in the same way and for the same length of term as the President. A candidate for Vice-President must be a natural-born citizen of the United States, must have reached the age of thirty-five years and must have been for fourteen years a resident of the United States. He is inaugurated in the Senate chamber at Washington on the same day and immediately preceding the inauguration of the President. His chief duty is to preside over the sessions of the Senate. He is not allowed to vote, except in case of a tie. He becomes President if the President dies or is permanently incapacitated from performing the duties of his office; Tyler, Fillmore, Johnson, Arthur, Roosevelt and Coolidge succeeded to the Presidency in this manner. The salary of the Vice-President is \$15,000 a year.

VICE'ROY, an official who rules a province or colony in the name of a sovereign, there-

fore, a vice-king. The Governor-General of British India is unofficially called a viceroy, and this title was given in 1896 to Italy's chief in Ethiopia.

VICKSBURG, Miss., third largest city in the state and the county seat of Warren County, forty-three miles west of Jackson, on the Mississippi River, a few miles below the mouth of the Yazoo, and on the Yazoo & Mississippi Valley and the Alabama & Vicksburg railroads, the city has an airport, and the river traffic is large. The city is situated on a high bluff overlooking the river. Near it is the Vicksburg National Military Park, which restored the Vicksburg battle ground as it was in 1863. The principal buildings of the city are the courthouse, the Federal building and the Mississippi State Charity Hospital. The educational institutions include all Saints College, a girls' junior college, the city public schools and four parochial schools.

Vicksburg is the center of a large cotton-growing district and is noted for its cotton trade. It has numerous manufacturing establishments, including cottonseed-oil mills, saw and lumber mills, box, ice and boat-car factories, boiler works, car shops, ice plants, cotton compresses, a mattress factory, the city also has repair shops of the Yazoo & Mississippi Valley Railroad.

The town was laid out on the plantations of John Lane and William Vick, and the city was incorporated in 1840. During the early part of the Civil War it was strongly fortified, and after a long siege it was surrendered to General Grant on July 4, 1863. Population, 1930, 22,943.

VICTOR EMMANUEL II (1820-1878), king of Sardinia, the son of Charles Albert. His aptitude for a military career became evident when he commanded the Savoy brigades against Austria (1848-1849), and he distinguished himself in the Battle of Goito by his reckless valor. After the Battle of Novara his father abdicated, and Victor Emmanuel ascended the throne of Sardinia. He had then to negotiate with Austria under most unfavorable circumstances, but he steadily refused to give up the principle of representative government in the Sardinian constitution, and this gained for him the good will of the Italian people. Under the advice of his celebrated minister, Cavour, he regulated the finances, reorganized the army and secularized the church property, for which he was excommunicated by the Pope.

Victor Emmanuel took part in the Crimean War against Russia, and in 1859, assisted by France, he renewed the contest with Austria, winning the battles of Magenta and Solferino. By the Treaty of Villafranca and the Peace of Zürich, which followed these successes, Lombardy was added to his dominions, but he had to cede Savoy and Nice to France. Parma, Modena and Tuscany now became united to Sardinia, and Garibaldi's successes in Sicily and Naples brought the whole of Southern Italy over to Victor Emmanuel. Early in 1861, he assumed the title of king of Italy. By the Peace of Vienna (1866) Austria ceded Venetia, and on the withdrawal of the French garrison from Rome in 1870 that city annexed itself to Italy. The king entered Rome on July 2, 1871, and took up his residence in the Quirinal. He was succeeded by his son Humbert.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

Cavour, Count	Humbert I
Crimean War	Italy (history)
Garibaldi, Giuseppe	Sardinia, Kingdom of

VICTOR EMMANUEL III (1869-), king of Italy, son of Humbert I and Queen Margherita. He entered the army in 1887 and was steadily advanced in rank. At the coronation of Nicholas II of Russia, in 1896, and at Queen Victoria's jubilee, in the following year, he was present as his father's representative. In 1896 he married Princess Helena of Montenegro. When his father was assassinated in 1900, he succeeded to the throne, and he proved a just and liberal ruler. The king assumed active command of the Italian armies on the Austrian front in the World War, and his attitude strengthened him in the esteem of his subjects. Though the rise of the Fascist regime under Mussolini made him a secondary figure, his personal popularity did not in the least abate.

VICTORIA (1819-1901), a beloved Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and Empress of India. She was the only child of Edward, Duke of Kent, fourth



VICTOR
EMMANUEL III

son of George III, and was born at Kensington Palace. The duke died when Victoria was only eight months old, and she was brought up by her mother with exceptional prudence and care. Upon the death of her uncle William IV, June 20, 1837, she ascended the throne and was crowned at Westminster, June 28, 1838. The English people knew little of their young queen, who had been brought up in seclusion, but she soon proved herself possessed of the clear judgment and moderation which a sovereign needs, and of a thorough goodness which won the hearts of her subjects.

During the reign of Victoria there were eighteen changes of government, the following Premiers taking office at the dates given: 1835, Melbourne; 1841, Peel; 1846, Russell; 1852, Derby; 1852, Aberdeen; 1855, Palmerston; 1858, Derby; 1859, Palmerston; 1865, Russell; 1866, Derby; 1868, Durash; 1868, Gladstone; 1874, Durash; 1880, Gladstone; 1885, Salisbury; 1886, Gladstone; 1886, Salisbury; 1892, Gladstone; 1895, Salisbury.

The leading events of the reign were the confederation of Canada, the Opium War in China; the abolition of the Corn Laws, under the administration of Sir Robert Peel, the successive steps in parliamentary reform, the enfranchisement of the Jews, the Catholic Emancipation act, the assumption of the government of India by the Crown, the Crimean War; the wars with Afghanistan, Abyssinia, the Zulu tribes and Egypt, the long struggle on the Irish home-rule question, the beginning of the South African War, and the Australian federation.

In February, 1840, Victoria was married to her cousin, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, and the marriage proved an unusually happy one. Four sons and five daughters were born to the royal couple. Victoria, Princess Royal, born in 1840, married in 1858 to Frederick William, afterward German Emperor, died in 1901; Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, born in 1841, married



VICTORIA

to Alexandra, daughter of the king of Denmark, succeeded to the throne on the death of his mother, Alice, born in 1843, married in 1862 to Prince Frederick William of Hesse, died in 1878; Alfred, born in 1844, married in 1874 to Marie, daughter of the Czar of Russia, died in 1901; Helena, born in 1846, was married in 1866 to Prince Christian of Denmark, Louise, born in 1848, was married in 1871 to the Marquis of Lorne, Arthur, born in 1850, was married in 1879 to Princess Louise Marguerite of Prussia; Leopold, born in 1853, married in 1882 to Princess Helen of Waldeck, died in 1884; Princess Beatrice, born in 1857, was married in 1885 to Prince Henry of Battenberg. In 1861 the Prince Consort died, and the queen withdrew from social life.

During the reign of Queen Victoria, Great Britain enjoyed a long era of uninterrupted prosperity, peace and contentment prevailed at home, and, with very rare exceptions, relations of amity were maintained with foreign powers. In length her reign was unprecedented in the world's history. It is true that Louis XIV of France ruled over a longer period than she, but subtracting the years during which he was under a regent, his responsible tenure of the crown was shorter than hers. Although George III nominally ruled sixty years, owing to his insanity a part of his reign was also under a regent.

In 1837 the people of Great Britain and the colonies celebrated the golden jubilee, or fiftieth year of Queen Victoria's reign. In 1887 they celebrated the diamond jubilee, with ceremonies more imposing than had ever attended any similar event. Representatives of all the colonies were present, and a grand procession, viewed by millions, moved through the streets of London. Victoria died January 22, 1901.

Related Articles Consult the following titles for additional information:

Corn Laws	India (History)
Crimean War	South African War
Great Britain	(History)

VICTORIA, a state of the Australian Commonwealth, situated in the southeastern part of the continent. Victoria is next to the smallest state of the Commonwealth, but is second in population. Only Tasmania has a smaller area, and New South Wales is the only state with more inhabitants. It is bounded on the north by New South Wales, on the south and southeast by the Indian

Ocean and on the west by South Australia. Its area is 37,884 square miles, or a little less than the areas of Virginia and North Carolina combined. It has about 600 miles of sea coast, with a considerable number of bays and indentations, especially about the middle, where Port Phillip Bay, with an area of 275 square miles and an entrance barely two miles wide, affords shelter sufficient for the largest fleet.

Surface and Drainage. The interior, though diversified by mountains, is chiefly distinguished by vast, unwooded plains, mostly occupied as pasture. There is one principal mountain range, a portion of the Great Dividing Range of Eastern Australia, running from east to west through the state, with various offshoots. The eastern portion of it, called the Australian Alps, with numerous northern and western ramifications, rises to 6,500 feet in Mount Bogong and to 6,100 feet in Mount Hotham, and has several other peaks exceeding 5,000 feet in height. The most westerly portion, called the Grampians, runs north and south, and in Mount William reaches a height of 5,600 feet. The Grampians and the Australian Alps are connected by such ranges as the Pyrenees and Hums Range, containing numerous cones and extinct craters. This is the region of the gold fields. The rivers are numerous, but they are generally small and dry up in summer, leaving the country parched. The chief is the Murray, which rises in the Australian Alps and forms the northern boundary of the state for 980 miles. It is 1,900 miles long and is navigable for several hundred miles.

The climate of Victoria is temperate, but liable to sudden changes, and hot winds blow at intervals from November to February, causing great discomfort. The hottest period is in January and February, when the thermometer sometimes rises to 108° in the shade.

Industry and Trade. Victoria has produced more gold than any other Australian state, but at present she is far outvantaged in that respect by Western Australia. Tin, antimony, copper and coal are also worked.

General farming is quite extensively followed. The chief crops among the cereals are wheat, oats and barley. Hay is grown, and forage crops are also raised. Among fruits, grapes take the lead, and considerable attention is given to the manufacture of wine. Stock raising is important, and wool

growing is the chief branch of agricultural industry. The state has over 17,000,000 sheep, and the annual output of wool averages over 145,000,000 pounds.

The manufacturing industries are quite generally distributed, and include the manufacture of textiles, machinery, food preparations, butter and cheese and malt and spirituous liquors.

Most of the commerce is with Great Britain, and in its foreign trade Victoria is the second state of the commonwealth. The chief exports are wool, gold, dairy products and wheat. Railway lines extend to all the most important trade centers and connect these directly or indirectly with Melbourne, the chief city and commercial port. In all, there are about 4,600 miles of railway in the state.

Government. The governor, who is the chief executive officer, is appointed by the British sovereign. The legislature consists of a council of thirty-four members, who are chosen for six years, and an assembly of sixty-five members, elected for three years. Suffrage is granted to men and women on equal terms. Melbourne, the capital, is the second largest city of Australia, following Sydney. Population of the state, 1927, 1,896,670, in 1933, 1,820,380.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

Australia Ballarat Melbourne
Ballarat Murray River

VICTORIA, B C, capital of the province, is situated on the southeastern extremity of Vancouver Island, on the Strait of San Juan de Fuca, seventy-five miles northwest of Seattle, Wash. It is within three miles of Esquimalt, a naval base with one of the finest harbors on the Pacific coast. The city is well laid out and has good streets, excellent roads connect it with the surrounding country. The public buildings include the parliament house, the government offices and the provincial museum and library, the city hall, the courthouse, a marine hospital, the Anglican Cathedral and exposition buildings. Victoria is a favorite residential city. It has lumber mills, and is also the lumber distributing center for Vancouver Island. It also has a large trade in salmon. Originally a post of the Hudson's Bay Company, it was incorporated as a city in 1852, and until the founding of Vancouver was the largest Canadian city on the Pacific coast. Its foreign trade is large, great steamships connect with

the Orient in regular sailings. Population in 1931, 39,082.

VICTORIA CROSS, the most highly-prized British military and naval decoration, instituted as a recognition of valor in the presence of the enemy at the close of the Crimean War in 1856. It is granted to soldiers and sailors of any rank, including native officers and men of the Indian army. Up to 1913 only 522 crosses had been awarded; this number was considerably increased during the World War. The cross is the more valuable because it is awarded sparingly, and only for the most conspicuous acts of bravery and devotion to the Empire.

VICTORIA FALLS, a celebrated cataract in the Zambezi River, in Rhodesia, South Africa, discovered by Livingstone in 1855 and named by him in honor of Queen Victoria. After flowing for a long distance over a rough and broken plateau, covered with brush and stunted trees, the Zambezi plunges suddenly into a chasm nearly 400 feet deep. The falls, 3,000 feet in width and 360 feet in height, are the most magnificent in the world. At low water the fall is broken by projecting rocks and is described by an observer as resembling a film of delicate lace, but when the river is swollen during the rainy season, an unbroken sheet of water is hurled over the ledge, forming a cataract unequalled elsewhere in the world. The roar of the falls can be heard for twenty miles, and the cloud of spray thrown into the air is visible for ten miles. Because of this cloud, the natives named the cataract *Mosi-o-tunya*, which means *roaring smoke*.

Below the cataract the Zambezi flows for a long distance through a narrow gorge, with nearly perpendicular walls of basalt. Just below the falls the Cape-to-Cairo Railway crosses the river on a magnificent steel bridge, 600 feet long and 420 feet above the water, it is the highest structure of the kind in the world. From this bridge a magnificent view of the falls is obtained.

VICTORIA NYANZA, the largest lake in Africa, having a surface area of 26,000 square miles and after Lake Superior the largest body of fresh water in the world. It was discovered in 1858 by Captain Speke and named for Queen Victoria (*nyanza* is the local word for lake). It has about 600 miles from the eastern coast and is crossed by the equator. It is fed by several streams, the most important being the Kagera to the

west, and drains an area of 92,000 square miles, where there is an annual rainfall of seventy-five inches. It is the principal source of the Nile River. As the Nile issues from the lake it forms the Rapon Falls, which are about 1,200 feet across. The lake is rocky and shallow and is dotted with islands. Port Bell, Entebbe and Jinja are the principal ports.

VICUNA, *ve koo'nyah*, a small animal of the camel family, somewhat resembling a wild goat or an antelope, which inhabits the Andes Mountains in South America. It is economically valuable because of its soft, silky, brown wool, which is of better quality even than that of the alpaca. It is commonly seen in herds of from six to fifteen females and one male. The animals are very timid, and have never been domesticated.

VIENNA, *ve en'shah*, now officially Wien, the capital and largest city of Austria, before the great war the fourth city in Europe in population, and one of the most pretentious capitals in the world. The day of Vienna's outstanding influence is past. By the terms of the peace treaty of 1919 Austria was reduced to a state of less than 3,000,000 inhabitants, and out of the old domain were erected several independent states with capitals of their own. It is not to be expected that the new Austria can support a capital of over 2,000,000 inhabitants, which was the population of Vienna at the outbreak of the war.

The city was formerly the center of Austrian social life and gayety, of the national administration, of art, education and music, of banking, commerce and finance. As a result of the disastrous war the wealth of Vienna disappeared, as did the court and the prestige of the aristocracy. The people who were left were burdened with debts and physically weakened by the privations of the war.

General Description. The city is situated on the south bank of the Danube, 330 miles south-southeast of Berlin and 630 miles east of Paris. The site is picturesque, for the plain on which the city was built is bordered by mountains, whose bases are covered with magnificent forests. A branch of the Danube, known as the Danube Canal, traverses the city from northwest to southeast. This canal is spanned by many bridges, and by the construction of a lock a section of it has been made into a spacious harbor.

Vienna is built upon the plan of the old European cities, containing an inner, or central city, surrounded by suburbs, which are now incorporated in the city and divided into districts. The old town, or Innere Stadt, occupying the center of the city, was formerly enclosed by a wall and fortifications. In 1858 these were removed, and a magnificent boulevard, the Ringstrasse, was erected upon their site. This is one of the finest streets in Europe, and upon it are found most of the important public buildings of the city. In the newer parts the streets are broad, and there are a number of boulevards and parks. Chief among these is the Prater, in the southeastern quarter, having an area of over 4,000 acres. The streets, parks and bridges are decorated with numerous statues and monuments. The buildings are noted for their beauty and elegant ornamentation, making Vienna, from the standpoint of architecture, one of the finest cities of the world.

Buildings and Monuments. In the center of the Innere Stadt is the Cathedral of Saint Stephen, which dates from the thirteenth century and is one of the finest Gothic structures in Europe. Other buildings of importance in and about the Ringstrasse are the imperial palace, in the southeastern quarter, noted for its age and size, rather than for its beauty, the townhall, a magnificent building adorned with many statues, the imperial museums of natural history and of art, with a monument of Maria Theresa between them, the houses of parliament, the palace of justice, the imperial opera house, a number of churches, noted for their statuary and paintings, and the University of Vienna, with its numerous structures. Among the noted monuments not already mentioned are the monument to Mozart, the equestrian statues of Archduke Charles and Prince Eugene of Savoy and the monument to the Archduchess Christine.

Institutions. The educational institutions include the University of Vienna, a polytechnic institute, an agricultural college, a geological institute, the academy of sciences, the conservatory of music and the military geographical institute, besides a large number of trade schools, which prepare their students for such occupations as printing, bookbinding and other mechanic arts. The imperial library contains 900,000 volumes, besides a large number of manuscripts and engravings, and the library of the university has 650,000

volumes. These are supplemented by other libraries in the various institutions. The collections in the academy of art and the museums are among the best in the world, while the armory contains a large collection of weapons and other instruments of war. The chief charitable institution is the general hospital, one of the largest and most famous institutions of its kind in the world, before the war medical students were drawn to it from all over Europe and America. There are also an asylum of the insane, and a number of smaller hospitals and homes for the blind and the deaf and dumb.

Industries. Vienna is situated at the crossing of the great commercial routes from London, Berlin and Paris to Constantinople and from Petrograd to Rome. Its situation made it an important industrial and commercial center. Among the leading industries were the manufacture of silks, woolens and other textiles, clothing, machinery, railway cars, locomotives and supplies, musical instruments, furniture, scientific and surgical instruments, pottery, jewelry, leather goods, malt liquors and numerous other products. Before the war the city had an extensive trade with the surrounding country and with the leading commercial centers of Europe, but during the war this trade was almost entirely cut off.

History. Vienna occupies the site of an ancient Roman camp, known as Vindobona. It first became prominent as the capital of the duchy of Austria, and for about 150 years from the middle of the sixteenth century it was the capital of the German Empire. It was the seat of the celebrated Congress of Vienna that reorganized Europe after the fall of Napoleon. Population in 1911, 2,031,498; by the official census of 1934 it was given as 1,874,581. See AUSTRIA, AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, WORLD WAR, VERSAILLES, TREATY OF.

VIENNA, CONGRESS OF, a convention of representatives of European powers which assembled late in 1814 to reorganize the political system of Europe after the close of the Napoleonic wars. It was a brilliant assemblage of crowned heads, prominent diplomats and statesmen, of whom Czar Alexander I of Russia, Prince Metternich, the Austrian Minister of State, Prince Talleyrand of France, Castlereagh and Wellington of Great Britain and Hardenberg and Humboldt of Prussia were among the most powerful

By the provisions of the Congress of Vienna, France was deprived of the territory conquered by Napoleon, Holland and Belgium were united into a single kingdom under the House of Orange, Norway and Sweden were joined under a single ruler, one of Napoleon's generals, and the independence and neutrality of Switzerland were guaranteed. The German states were loosely confederated under a diet at Frankfort. In Italy the old governments, consolidated under Napoleon, were restored. Poland was reestablished as a constitutional kingdom dependent upon Russia. Great Britain found compensation in the extension of its colonial possessions.

The Congress of Vienna is criticized for its blindness to the spirit of nationalism that had been awakened throughout Europe by the events of the French Revolution. It defined boundaries arbitrarily, without consulting the peoples concerned, thus laying the basis of many disputes and future wars. The diplomatic method known as the balance of power, brought into prominence by this Congress, led to unending international complications that finally resulted in the bursting forth, in 1914, of the World War, the most widespread and violent conflict in all history.

VIKINGS. See NORSEMEN

VILLA, *veel' ya*, FRANCISCO, or PANCHO (1877-1923), a Mexican revolutionist and bandit, born at Los Nieves. His real name is DONOSO ARANGO; he called himself Villa after joining the Madero revolution. He had no education, and became a bandit and outlaw at a early age, long before the Madero uprising. President Diaz had offered a reward for his capture. In 1914 he joined Carranza in a revolution against Huerta, and the next year he started a revolution against Carranza, gaining control of parts of the states of Sonora, Chihuahua and Sinaloa.

In March, 1916, Villa invaded New Mexico, and raided the town of Columbus. United States troops under Pershing made an expedition of 500 miles into Mexico to capture Villa, but he fled to the mountains and escaped. After the troops were withdrawn, in 1917, he resumed his depredations, but did not invade the United States again during the period of the World War. In the summer of 1918, however, his attitude became very threatening, and an American patrol crossed the border. In 1920, after the deposition of Carranza, Villa came to terms with the new government, which gave him

a money allowance and a military command. See MEXICO, UNITED STATES; CARRANZA.

VILLEINS, *vil' lēnz*, a class of feudal serfs, who were allowed to hold portions of land at the will of their lord, on condition of performing menial and non-military services. It frequently happened that lands held in villageme descended in uninterrupted succession from father to son, until at length the occupier or villeins became entitled, by prescription or custom, to hold their lands so long as they performed the required services. And although the villeins themselves acquired freedom, the villein services were still the condition of the tenure. These customs were preserved and evidenced by the rolls of the several courts in which they were entered, or by the immemorial usage of the several manors in which the lands lay. And as such tenants had nothing to show for their estates but the entries into those rolls, or copies of them, they at last came to be called *tenants by copy of court roll*, and their tenure was known as a *copy-hold*. See FEUDAL SYSTEM.

VILLI, minute projections covering the mucous lining of the small intestine. Each villus contains an artery, a vein, a capillary, or a network of capillaries, and lacteal. The function of the villi is to absorb the nutritious matter from the digested food in the intestines, after which the digested fats are carried to the thoracic duct, and the sugars, water, proteins and inorganic salts are carried by the portal vein to the liver. In constipation the villi are submerged by waste matter, and the absorption of food matter by them is made difficult or impossible.

VIL'NA, POLAND, a city of about 200,000 population, situated on the navigable Vilna River northeast of Warsaw. Vilna is an old city, dating from the tenth century. Before the annexation of Lithuania by Russia in 1795, it was the capital of that country. In April, 1919, Vilna was seized. When the new Lithuania (which see) was organized after the World War, it claimed Vilna, but Poland seized it, and this incident nearly led to war. The city seems destined to remain Polish.

VINCENNES, *vin'senz'*, IND., one of the oldest towns in the United States, the county seat of Knox county, 117 miles southwest of Indianapolis, on the Wabash River and on the Baltimore & Ohio Southwestern, the Cleveland, Cincinnati, Chicago & Saint Louis,

the Chicago and Eastern Illinois, and the Pennsylvania railroads. It is in an agricultural, lumbering and coal-mining region and has manufactures of flour, lumber and clay products, novelties, paper, stoves and farm and mining implements.

It is the seat of the Vincennes University, which is a junior college, a cathedral library and a public library. Other interesting features are the house in which William Henry Harrison lived when he was governor of the territory, the old legislative house, the courthouse, the city hall, the first in Indiana, the Federal building, the Vincennes Sanatorium, Harrison Park and the George Rogers Clark Memorial.

Vincennes is located on the site of an ancient Indian village, called Chip-kaw-kay. The French erected a fort here about 1702, and a permanent settlement soon grew up. It was first called "The Post," but was later given its present name, in honor of its founder, François Morgan de Vincenne. The place was taken by the British in 1763, was captured by Virginia troops under Colonel George Rogers Clark in 1779 and was turned over to the United States in 1783. It was the capital of Indiana Territory from 1801 to 1816 and was made a city in 1856.

Population, 1920, 17,210; in 1930, 17,564, a gain of 2 per cent.

VINCENT, GEORGE EDGAR (1864-), an American educator and sociologist, son of Bishop John H. Vincent, born at Rockford, Ill. After his graduation from Yale Uni-

versity in 1885 he traveled in Europe and the Orient and then engaged for a time in journalistic and literary work. In 1888 he became vice-president of the Chautauqua system and in 1907 president of the Chautauqua Institution. At the same time he was a member of the faculty of the University of Chicago, having been appointed in 1894. In 1904 he was made professor of sociology, from 1900 to 1907 he was dean of the junior college, and from 1907 to 1911, dean of the faculties of arts, literature and science. In 1911 professor Vincent became president of the Um-



GEORGE E. VINCENT

verity of Minnesota, and in 1917 resigned from that post to accept the presidency of the Rockefeller Foundation (which see), from which post he retired in 1929. He wrote voluminously on educational topics for many years.

VINCENT, JOHN HENRY (1832-1920), a Methodist Episcopal bishop, best known as one of the founders of the Chautauqua Assembly movement. He was born at Tuscaloosa, Ala., and was educated at Lewisburg (Pa.) Academy and at Wesleyan Institute, Newark, N.J. Entering the New Jersey Conference in 1858, he preached four years in the East, and was then transferred to the Rock River Conference, in Northern Illinois. In 1865 he established the *Northwest Sunday-School Quarterly*, and the following year *The Sunday-School Teacher*. From 1868 to 1884 he was corresponding secretary of the Sunday-School Union of his denomination and editor of its publications. Ten years previous to the latter date he had helped to lay the foundations of Chautauqua Institution and in 1878 had become its chancellor. He was elected bishop in 1888, and twelve years later was appointed resident bishop in Europe, remaining abroad four years and then retiring from the active episcopate in 1904. His publications include *The Chautauqua Movement*, *The Church School and Its Officers*, *Studies in Young Life*, *A Study in Pedagogy* and *Family Worship for Every Day in the Year*. See CHAUTAUQUA INSTITUTION.

VINCI, vīn' chē, LEONARDO DA (1452-1519), one of the foremost scholars of the Italian Renaissance and one of the greatest artists of all time. His place in history is unique, not only because of the high quality of his art, but because of the versatility of his genius and his intellectual influence on his contemporaries. Such a combination of artistic and scientific capacities has not been known in any other man. Leonardo was distinguished not only as a painter, but as a sculptor, an architect, a musician and an engineer. As a philosopher and man of science he was the forerunner of Galileo, Bacon and Descartes. He was acknowledged the greatest physicist of the fifteenth century. He "united a remarkable knowledge of mathematics with the most admirable intuition of nature," and he "anticipated the grandest discoveries of modern science," says a modern scholar.

Leonardo was born at the small town of Vinci, near Florence, the son of a Florentine notary. In his youth he was distinguished for his great personal beauty, physical strength and eagerness for knowledge. After studies with the celebrated painter and sculptor Verrocchio he became an independent artist, and from the age of twenty onward enjoyed the most distinguished patronage; Lorenzo de' Medici, Ludovico the Duke of Milan and Francis I of France treated him with the highest honor. As architect, engineer, painter, sculptor and decorator, he received numerous commissions, and in everything he undertook he aimed at perfection.

His supreme masterpiece, *The Last Supper*, painted on a wall of the monastery of Santa Maria delle Grazie, at Milan, represents Christ, seated with his disciples, at the dramatic instant following His announcement that one of the twelve should betray Him. In characterization and dramatic and spiritual significance it surpasses all other treatments of the same subject. Unfortunately, the picture has been exposed to dampness and smoke, and these elements, together with clumsy attempts to restore it, have obliterated much of its original beauty. The most celebrated of Leonardo's easel pictures, that known as *Mona Lisa*, is the portrait of a prominent Florentine lady, perhaps the most famous portrait in the world (see PAINTING). *The Virgin of the Rocks*, *The Virgin, Saint Anne and Christ* and *John the Baptist*, all in the Louvre, are his other chief masterpieces. Leonardo spent his last years in France in the service of Francis I. He wrote a celebrated treatise on painting.

VINEGAR, a sour liquid whose active principle is acetic acid, is made from the juices of fruits and vegetables and from almost any other liquid that will ferment. It is used as a condiment and in the pickling and preserving of foods. The vinegar of commerce is made from wine, cider or malt exposed to the air, usually at a heightened temperature until the alcohol which it contains turns into acetic acid. By far the largest part of the vinegar used in the United States is made from cider. Ohio, New York, Michigan and Missouri lead in the industry.

Cheap grades of vinegar are usually given their sour taste by the addition of sulphuric acid. This adulterated product is very unhealthful, and should not be purchased. The presence of the acid can be detected by

boiling a mixture of vinegar and potato starch, and when this becomes cool, adding a small quantity of iodine. If the vinegar is pure, the mixture will turn blue on the addition of the iodine, if sulphuric acid is present, the color will remain unchanged.

VINELAND, the name given to that part of North America which was visited by Norsemen several centuries before Columbus made his famous voyage. As early as the tenth century a Norwegian viking, Bjarni Harjulfson, was driven by storms to the mainland near Greenland, and in the year 1000 Leif Ericson landed on the continent, probably somewhere between Delaware and Labrador. He named the region *Vinland* (also spelled *Vinsland*) because of the numerous wild grapevines there. It is believed, however, that the Norsemen did settle at some point in America and that they built homes, which they deserted because of the hostility of Indians. The former popular belief that the old mill at Newport and the Dighton Rock are evidences of their visit has long since been discarded, the former having been erected by an early governor of Rhode Island and the latter being the work of Algonquin Indians.

VITOL, a class of ancient musical instruments, which may be regarded as the precursors of the modern violins. They were fretted instruments, with three to six strings, and were played with a bow. There were three instruments in a set, differing in pitch; these were the treble, tenor and bass viols, and in concerts they were commonly played in pairs—two treble, two tenor and two bass. The bass viol, or *viol da gamba*, developed into the modern *violoncello*.

VIOLET, the popular name given to a genus of plants, of which there are many species. They are favorite flowers in all northern and temperate climates, and many of them are among the first to make their appearance in the spring. The greatest favorites are the common sweet violet and the heart's-ease, the former being especially esteemed for its fragrance. The well-known pansies, so common as garden flowers, are but varieties of one species, produced by cultivation. In different localities, various species are called Johnny-jump-ups. The so-called dog-tooth violet belongs to the lily family.

VIOLIN', a musical instrument, consisting of four catgut strings, the lowest of

which is covered with silvered copper wire, stretched, by means of a bridge, over a hollow wooden body, and played with a bow. It is considered the most perfect of musical instruments, on account of its capabilities of fine tone and expression and of producing all the tones in any scale in perfect tune. It forms, with the violin, the violoncello, or bass violin, and the double bass, the main element of all orchestras.

The principal parts of the violin are the scroll, or head, in which are placed the pins for tuning the strings, the neck, which connects the scroll with the body, and to which is attached the fingerboard, upon which the strings are stopped by the fingers of the left hand, as it holds the neck in playing, the belly, over which the strings are stretched, and which has two f-shaped sound holes, one on each side, the back, or under side, the sides, or ribs, uniting the back and belly, the tailpiece, to which the strings are fastened, and the bridge. The back, neck and sides are generally of sycamore, the belly of deal, the fingerboard and tailpiece of ebony. Almost all the pieces are put together with glue.

The four strings of the violin are tuned at G, on the upper space of the base staff, D, A, E, reckoning upward. Every intermediate semitone in a compass of $3\frac{1}{2}$ octaves may be produced by stopping the strings with the fingers, and the compass may be almost indefinitely extended upward by touching the strings lightly. The cello, or tenor violin, has four strings, tuned to C (in the second space of the base staff), D, A, G, reckoning upward, it is an octave higher than the violoncello and a fifth lower than the violin.

The art of violin-making reached its highest development in the sixteenth, seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. The greatest of the world's violin makers, Stradivarius, Amati and Guarneri worked at Cremona, Italy. Very fine instruments were also made at the same time in France and Germany.

VIOLONCELLO, *v. o. lōn chēl' lo*, also called CELLO (*chēl'ō*), a large musical instrument of the violin class, intermediate between the violin and the double bass. The performer rests one end of the instrument on the floor between his knees, and supports the neck with his left hand. There are four gut strings, the two lowest covered with silver wire. They are tuned in fifths—C, G, D, A. The instrument has a compass from C to A, .

The higher notes are in the treble clef, the lower in the bass. Although the instrument is much larger than the violin, the cello bow is shorter. Comparatively little solo music has been written for the cello.

VIPER, the name applied to a family of venomous reptiles found in tropical and temperate regions of Europe, Asia and Africa. This snake has a flat, triangular head, which in most species is covered with scales. The pupil of the eye is like a cat's eye. The common viper is rarely more than two feet long, is usually brownish-yellow, with black triangular spots on its sides and zigzag lines on its back. Its bite, as a rule, is not fatal, but may cause pain and fever. It is the only venomous snake in Great Britain. Another species, called the sand viper, having a small fleshy horn on its nose, is found along the shores of Mediterranean countries. In Africa occur the death adder, puff adder and saw viper. The horned viper of the Egyptian desert, which preys at night and burrows in the sand during the day, is much feared on account of its bite, which is usually fatal. The largest and most deadly of all vipers is Russell's viper of India. It is five feet long, and its poison is invariably fatal.

VIRCHOW, *vir'kō*, Rudolf (1821-1902), a German physician and pathologist, born in Pomerania. He studied medicine at Berlin and early became famous as a lecturer on pathological anatomy at Berlin University. His advanced liberal opinions during the movement of 1848 induced the government to deprive him, temporarily, of his appointment. In 1849 he accepted a chair at Wurzburg, where he remained seven years, at the end of which time he returned to Berlin as professor in the university and director of the pathological institute attached to it. In 1858 he published *Cellular Pathology*, in which he showed that pathological tissues are a collection of cells. Virchow rendered immense service to medical science by his discoveries in regard to inflammation, ulceration, tuberculous and other diseases, and he has had great influence on the whole of modern medicine, including hospital reform and sanitary science. He was a voluminous writer, not only on scientific, but also on political subjects, and many of his works have been translated into the English and other European languages.

VIREO, a common name of a small family of birds, whose plumage is generally of a

greenish shade. They are sometimes called greenlets, and about a dozen species are found in the United States. Many of the birds are singers, the songs of the several species varying considerably. The birds feed exclusively upon insects, and thus render a distinct service to the farmer. The nests of all are similar, being cup-shaped and constructed of ribbonlike materials.

The best-known species in the United States is the *red-eyed vireo*. It is about six inches long, has bright olive-green back and tail, and a double line of sah and white over the eye, the rim of which is red. The *yellow-throated vireo* has a bright, olive-green back and yellow throat and breast. The *warbling vireo* is of plain plumage, but has a charming song.

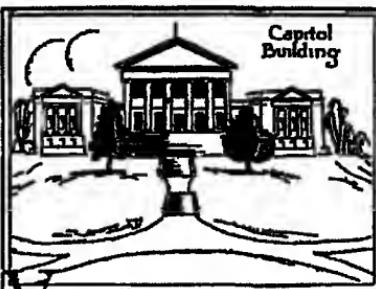
VIRGIL, *vir'jil*. See VIRGIN.

VIRGIN ISLANDS OF THE UNITED STATES, a group of islands purchased by the United States from Denmark in 1917 for \$25,000,000. Before the change of ownership they were known as the DANISH WEST INDIES. Geographically the Virgin Islands are a part of the Leeward Islands, which, with the Windward Islands to the south of them, constitute the Lesser Antilles, stretching southward from Porto Rico in a great semicircle nearly to the coast of South America.

The Virgin Islands consist of three main islands—Saint Croix, Saint John and Saint Thomas—and about fifty smaller ones, only five of which are inhabited. The total population of the three larger islands is about 22,000, and the combined area is about 132 square miles. Saint Croix has an approximate area of eighty-four square miles and a population of 11,418. Saint Thomas is twenty-eight square miles in extent, and is inhabited by 9,834 persons; Saint John, with an area of twenty square miles, has 765 inhabitants. (The population statistics are from the official census report of 1930.) The great majority of the people are of negro or of mixed white and negro blood.

These islands are of volcanic and coral origin, and are of slight importance industrially, but because of their strategic value as outposts for the protection of the Panama Canal their purchase by the United States was highly approved by all Americans. The harbor of Saint Thomas, the chief town on Saint Thomas, is one of the best in the West Indies, and the town is an important

calling station for vessels plying between Europe and the Americas, especially for those bound for the Panama Canal. Vessels not only may secure coal, oil and other supplies, but find in the harbor a safe refuge from storms. The Virgin Islands carry on a small import and export trade, almost entirely with the United States. They export hides, skins, and valuable woods, and import foodstuffs, boots and shoes, principally. In 1936 Congress voted them universal suffrage and a considerable measure of home rule. See SAINT THOMAS.



VIRGINIA, *vir'jın'ə*, one of the thirteen original states of the American Union, belonging to the South Atlantic group. In colonial days it was referred to in official documents as the "Dominion of Virginia," a name that survives in its popular designation, the Old Dominion. Virginia is the picturesque name given the colony by Sir Walter Raleigh, who bestowed it in honor of Elizabeth, the "Virgin Queen" of England. As colony and state Virginia has had a unique and honored place in American history. On its soil in 1607 was planted the first permanent English settlement in the New World. A leader in the struggle for independence, it gave the American nation its first President and seven others, besides Patrick Henry, John Marshall, Richard Henry Lee, John Randolph and other distinguished orators and statesmen. Virginia's honorary title, "Mother of Presidents," is well deserved.

Location and Area. The state is the most northerly of the South Atlantic group. It has the shape of an irregular triangle, with the apex pointing northward, and Tennessee and North Carolina lying along the base, on the south. The sloping western boundary lies adjacent to West Virginia and Kentucky;

Maryland is at the extreme north and along the northeast, Chesapeake Bay and the Atlantic Ocean bound the state on the east. With an area of 42,627 square miles, Virginia is the thirty-third commonwealth in the Union in size. Of its area, 2,365 square miles are water surface, as the state has numerous landlocked harbors and rivers. The states nearest it in size are Tennessee, with an area of 42,022 square miles, and Ohio, which covers 41,040 square miles.

People and Cities. In 1920 Virginia had a population of 2,808,187. By the census of 1930 the State had a population of 2,421,851, and an average density of 60.2 persons to the square mile, and was nineteenth in rank in the United States.

About one-fourth of the people are of negro blood, the proportion of foreign-born to the total white population is about five per cent, and of the native-born population nine-tenths are Virginians by birth. Russians, Germans, English, Irish and Scotch are the most prominent of the foreign-born groups. The principal religious bodies are the Baptist, Methodist, Presbyterian, Roman Catholic and Episcopalian.

Richmond, with a reported population of 182,929 in 1930, is the capital and largest city. The cities next in size are Norfolk (129,710), Roanoke (69,206), Portsmouth (45,704), Lynchburg (40,861), Newport News (34,417), Petersburg (28,584), and Alexandria (24,149).

Surface and Drainage. There are five natural divisions of Virginia, which differ greatly in scenery, soil, and productions. Named in their order, from east to west, they are the Coastal Plain (or the Tidewater), the Piedmont section, the Blue Ridge, the Appalachian Valley, and Appalachian Plateau. The Tidewater country extends about 100 miles westward from the ocean; it is divided by Chesapeake Bay and deeply cut by smaller bays, estuaries and rivers. The Piedmont section, extending from Tidewater to the Blue Ridge, is an undulating plain, increasing in elevation toward its western limits. The Blue Ridge, from three to twenty miles wide, broken by gorges and a series of beautiful peaks and expanding into an elevated plateau toward the south, is a prominent range. Its mountains and hills enclose picturesque valleys and coves.

The highest peak is Mt. Rogers (5,719 feet), in the Blue Ridge Plateau near the

Tennessee line. The Valley of Virginia, between the Blue Ridge and the "Alleghenies," is a garden spot of the state. The limestone formations in the central part of this valley contain several noted caverns, besides the famous Natural Bridge and Natural Tunnel, considered wonders of the world. The "Alleghenies" are a mountainous region of narrow ridges, enclosing troughlike valleys, and trending southwest.

The Potomac, which forms a portion of the boundary between Virginia and Maryland, drains the northern and eastern parts of the state. Its chief tributaries are the South Branch (West Virginia) and the Shenandoah. The important streams flowing into Chesapeake Bay, from north to south, are the Rappahannock, York, and the James. The Roanoke rises west of Roanoke and flows southeast into North Carolina, southwest of Emporia. This, with its tributaries, drains the south-central region. The southwestern part is drained into the Tennessee, and the northwestern, into the Potomac. The two counties, Accomack and Northampton, forming a peninsula between Chesapeake Bay and the Atlantic are lowlands, without notable streams. This area is indented by many estuaries and bays which provide safe and convenient harbors for small boats.

Climate. The climate is diversified according to the natural divisions of surface. In general, the state is free from intense heat and severe cold, although sudden changes are common in most localities. The mean annual temperature is 56°. The average annual rainfall ranges from about forty to forty-five inches. The climate is healthful the year round.

Mineral Resources. Virginia has a wide variety of minerals, and the annual output of all products was valued at about \$42,000,000 in 1929 and about \$17,000,000 in 1933. In the southwestern part, there are valuable coal mines now yielding 8,000,000 to 9,000,000 tons a year. Coal is the most important of the minerals, and is followed by stone products, notably cement materials, granite, limestone, sand and gravel, slate, and soapstone. Virginia is the first state in the production of soapstone. Clay products and lime are next in order of importance, among the former brick constitutes about eighty percent of the total product.

Other minerals of commercial value include feldspar, gypsum, lead and zinc, marl-

ganese, mica, salt brine, silica, and titanium minerals. There are numerous mineral springs distributed over the state, some of which are frequented as health resorts because of their medicinal properties. Hot Springs, seventy-five miles north of Roanoke, is one of the best known.

Agriculture. Formerly cash crops furnished the major farm income, but more recently livestock, livestock products, and poultry have greatly increased in importance, and in recent years have contributed approximately one-half of the farm income.

Tobacco and potatoes alternate for the lead as the principal cash crop. Peanuts and cotton are important sources of income in about twelve counties in the southeastern part of the state. Bright tobacco is raised extensively in the central and southern sections, whereas the Burley variety is increasing in importance in the southwestern part of the state.

Virginia ranks third in the production of apples, with extensive orchards in the Shenandoah Valley and the Piedmont district. Corn is the most important crop in point of acreage and value, being largely used on the farms. Wheat is an important cash crop in the Shenandoah Valley.

Truck crops are grown extensively in Eastern Shore and Tidewater counties.

Fisheries. Virginia is one of the leading states in value of oyster fisheries, as the tidal waters contain immensely profitable beds of that mollusk, about two-thirds of the value of the entire fishery output is represented by the oyster catch. Other products of the fisheries include shad, menhaden, alewives, clams, crabs and bluefish.

Manufactures. The leading manufacturing enterprises are those connected with the making of lumber and lumber products. Second in importance is the manufacture of smoking and chewing tobacco. Richmond, which is the great center of this interest, has one of the largest tobacco factories in the United States. Flour milling, car construction and repair, leather tanning, the manufacture of fertilizer, paper making, the manufacture of cotton goods and of boots, shoes and the roasting of peanuts are other profitable lines of manufacture. Shipbuilding has developed extensively of late years, especially at Newport News, on Hampton Roads. Here is one of the largest shipyards in the country. Good water power, a wealth

of raw materials and ready means of transportation are all favorable factors in the industrial growth of the state.

Transportation. There are over 4,700 miles of railroad in operation. Some of the main lines are the Chesapeake & Ohio, the Southern, the Norfolk & Western, the Baltimore & Ohio, the Atlantic Coast Line, the Virginian Railroad, and the Seaboard Railroad. Coastwise steamers run regularly between Virginia ports and New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore and Boston, and a line of freighters plies between Newport News and Liverpool-Hampton Roads, at the mouth of the James River, is one of the finest harbors along the Atlantic coast. There is a large interstate traffic, both by rail and water. The exports consist of tobacco and its manufactured products, lumber, grain, cotton, fruit, vegetables, coal, iron and naval stores, and the imports are manufactured goods and food products. Norfolk is the chief cotton shipping port and Newport News the principal city for coal shipment.

Government. The legislature consists of a senate, which cannot exceed forty members or have less than thirty-three members, and a house of delegates of not less than ninety, nor more than 100, members. The senators are elected for four years and the delegates for two. The executive department consists of a governor, a lieutenant-governor, a secretary of the commonwealth, an auditor, a treasurer, a superintendent of public instruction, an adjutant-general and commissioners of agriculture and insurance. The state courts consist of a supreme court of appeals, of five judges, chosen by the legislature for twelve years, and circuit courts, which are held in twenty-four judicial districts, each of which has a judge, elected by the legislature for eight years. Lower courts are established for cities and towns.

Education. The public school system is under the general supervision of a State Board of Education of seven members appointed for four years by the Governor, subject to confirmation by the General Assembly, and a State Superintendent of Public Instruction appointed by the Governor, subject to confirmation of the General Assembly for a term of four years coincident with that of the Governor making the appointment. The revenue for school purposes is provided almost wholly by state and local taxation. Separate schools are maintained for the

white and colored children, and the law requires that each district must have an annual school term of at least one hundred and sixty school days.

The state supports the University of Virginia, the Virginia Polytechnic Institute, the Virginia Military Institute, College of William and Mary (the second oldest college in the United States), the Medical College of Virginia, at Richmond, four state teachers colleges, one each at Farmville, Frederickburg, Harrisonburg, and Radford, Virginia School for the Deaf and Blind at Staunton, Virginia State College for Negroes at Petersburg, Virginia State School for the Colored Deaf and Blind at Newport News. The University of Virginia, at Charlottesville, was founded by Thomas Jefferson, the Virginia Military Institute, at Lexington, is called the "West Point of the South."

Other institutions of higher learning in the State consist of the following: Sullins College, at Bristol, Virginia Intermont College, at Bristol, Southern College, at Petersburg, Emory and Henry College, at Emory, Bridgewater College, at Bridgewater, Hampden-Sydney College, at Hampden-Sydney, Lynchburg College, at Lynchburg, Randolph-Macon College, at Ashland, Randolph-Macon Woman's College, Lynchburg, Roanoke College at Salem, Sweet Briar College, at Sweet Briar, University of Richmond at Richmond, Washington and Lee University, at Lexington, Averett College, at Danville, Blackstone College, at Blackstone, Bluefield College, at Bluefield, Marion College, at Marion, Mary Baldwin College, at Staunton, and Shenandoah College, at Dayton. Also Hampton Normal and Industrial School for Colored, at Hampton.

The State through its Department of Health maintains the Blue Ridge Sanatorium, at Charlottesville, the Catawba Sanatorium, near Salem, the Piedmont Sanatorium, at Burkeville. Through its Department of Public Welfare it provides for the Virginia Commission for the Blind, Central State Hospital, at Petersburg, Eastern State Hospital, at Williamsburg, Southwestern State Hospital, at Marion, Western State Hospital, at Staunton, State Colony for Epileptics and Feeble-Minded, at Colony, R. E. Lee Camp Soldiers' Home, at Richmond, State Penitentiary Farm, at State Farm, State Penitentiary Farm for

Defective and Miserable Women, at Goochland, State Penitentiary, at Richmond, Virginia Industrial School for Boys, at Mardens, Virginia Home and Industrial School for Girls, at Bow Ax, Virginia Industrial School for Colored Girls, at Peaks Turnout, and Virginia Manual Labor School for Colored Boys, at Hanover.

History. The shores of Virginia were probably first visited by Sebastian Cabot in 1498, but no attempt at settlement was made until late in the following century, when Sir Walter Raleigh sent out several expeditions without success. The London Company was formed in 1606, and in the following spring a colony was established at Jamestown. Its leading spirit was Captain John Smith, whose energy and ability saved the settlement from early destruction by famine and Indian attacks. In 1610 Lord Delaware was sent to the colony as governor, and under his wise administration the settlement prospered. This year 1619 witnessed the introduction of negro slavery by Dutch traders, as well as the establishment of the first representative assembly in America. From this time on many immigrants, driven from England by the persecution of the Puritans, arrived in Virginia, but at the outbreak of the Puritan revolution, in 1642, William Berkeley, a staunch royalist, became governor and promptly suppressed the rebellious spirit. At this time an influx of royalists also began, which led to serious opposition to the Cromwell régime in England and to the joyful recognition of the return of the Stuarts to the throne. However, within the next few years discontent with economic conditions and the policy of the administration led to a serious insurrection, known as Bacon's Rebellion.

The eighteenth century in Virginia was marked by remarkable development, especially in the westward districts of the colony. During the French and Indian Wars, Virginia took an exceptionally prominent part, but it was also a leader in the resistance to Parliamentary taxation, in Assembly passing some of the earliest and most important measures of the period. Virginia also furnished some of the most conspicuous figures of the time, such as Washington, Jefferson, Patrick Henry, the Lees and Madison. The state took a prominent part in the Revolution, and the war ended on Virginia soil, in the surrender of Cornwallis. During the early years of the Republic, the state was

VIRGINIA THE OLD DOMINION



Houdon's Statue of Washington in the Capital, Richmond



State Seal



All that is left of Old Jamestown



William and Mary College,
Chartered in 1693



An Oyster Gatherer



Stratford, Westmoreland County,
the Birthplace of Robert E Lee



Jackson Monument, Richmond

Items of Interest on Virginia

The present state constitution was adopted in 1802.

The first white child born in the New World was born in Virginia and was named Virginia Dare.

The first exports of iron ore were sent from Virginia in 1608.

Twenty thousand pounds of tobacco were exported in 1619.

The first representative assembly in North America was the Virginia House of Burgesses, which met for the first time in 1619.

In 1648 the population of the colony was 15,000.

Seven states have been formed from territory which was formerly Virginia.

During the Civil War, of the six great campaigns in the East, four were on Virginia soil, the first Manassas Campaign (1861), the Peninsula battles (1862), the second Manassas, Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville (1862-63), and the great Battles of the Wilderness and campaigns around Petersburg (1864-65).

Questions on Virginia

What is the area of Virginia?

Name and describe the physical divisions.

Describe the drainage.

What is the character of the coast line?

What is the most valuable product of the fisheries?

How does Virginia rank as a tobacco-growing state?

Name four other important crops.

What is the most valuable mineral product?

Name two minerals in which Virginia leads all other states.

What are the leading manufactured products?

How many miles of railroad are there in the state?

What natural advantages has Richmond? What are its leading industries? What buildings of historical interest still stand in Richmond?

Name five prominent educational institutions.

stanchly Anti-Federalist, but six of the first ten Presidents were Virginians.

The state was at first favorable to the liberation of the slaves, but under the influence of states' rights theories and of agricultural conditions, it finally adhered to the policies of the lower South, and in the Civil War Virginia not only furnished the ablest generals in the Confederate armies, but became the battle ground of the great struggle. The state at first opposed secession, but finally passed the resolution, April 17, and from that time forward it was a continuous fighting ground between the two armies, many of the most important actions of the war, including Lee's surrender at Appomattox, taking place within its borders. A new constitution, framed in 1868, was adopted, but the state was not re-admitted until 1870. In 1802 a constitutional provision was adopted, limiting suffrage. After 1928 a gift of about \$5,000,000 from John D. Rockefeller, Jr., restored Williamsburg (settled in 1632) to its pre-Revolutionary appearance. There has been recent coordination of transportation facilities.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

CITIES

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Bacon's Rebellion	Jamestown
Bull Run, Battles of	Revolutionary War in America
Chancellorsville,	Smith, John
Battle of	West Virginia, sub-head History
Fredericksburg,	
Battle of	
Harper's Ferry	

RIVERS

James	Roanoke
Potomac	Shenandoah
Rappahannock	

TOPOGRAPHIC FEATURES

Alleghany Mountains	Natural Bridge
Blue Ridge	Piedmont Region
Luray Caverns	

VIRGINIA, MINN., a mining and lumbering community, eleventh city in size in the state, is in Saint Louis County, seventy-five miles northwest of Duluth, on the Great Northern, the Canadian National, and the Duluth, Missabe, & Northern railroads. It is a very important distributing point for ores from the famous Vermilion and Mesaba ranges, one of largest and richest iron-producing regions of the world. Saw mills, once famous here, are reduced to one small mill, of slight capacity. An extensive dairy industry is developing. The town was settled in 1892.

and became a city in 1905. It has been twice burned by forest fires. There are a Federal building, a public library, a county courthouse and two parks. The workmen of the mills and mines are largely of European birth. Population, 1920, 14,022; in 1930, 11,963, a loss of 14 per cent.

VIRGINIA, *vir'jɪnɪə*, or, a state institution of higher learning, located near Charlottesville, four miles from Monticello, the old home of Thomas Jefferson. The university was founded by the state of Virginia through the influence of Jefferson, in 1819, and it owes much of its efficiency to his interest and care. In October, 1903, the government board created the office of president, prior to which time the executive officer of the university was called rector. The institution is organized into academic, engineering, law, medical and agricultural departments. There are more than 150 instructors and about 2,500 students, and the library contains 200,000 volumes. The state of Virginia makes an annual appropriation for the maintenance of the university. Among the interesting buildings is the Rotunda, housing the library. The structure is modeled upon the Pantheon at Rome.

VIRGINIA CITY, Nev., once third city in the state, the county seat of Storey County, fifty-two miles southeast of Reno, on the Virginia & Truckee railroad. The city grew up about the famous Comstock lode, the world's richest silver mine, discovered in 1859, and since that time having a consolidated output amounting to approximately a billion dollars. The settlement was first known as Ophir and later as Silver City. It received its present name from James Fennimore, an early settler, familiarly known as "Old Virginia." The city was incorporated in 1864. The population in 1880 was 10,917, the subsequent decrease being largely due to exhaustion of the lode and a decline in the price of silver. Population, 1930, 590.

VIRGINIA CREEPER, a scrubby, hardy climbing plant of the grape family. It is much grown on walls on the continent of Europe, in the British Isles and in America as an ornamental vine. The stem develops tiny rootlets along its entire length, and by means of these the vines, which often attain a great size and weight are upheld. The foliage is compound, five leaflets to a stem, and in autumn is brilliantly colored. The wild Virginia creeper is sometimes mistaken

for poison ivy, though the latter has three leaflets on a stem. Because of the little bunches of dark blue berries which appear in the fall the creeper is sometimes called *false grape*.

VIRGINIA RESOLUTIONS. See KENTUCKY AND VIRGINIA Resolutions.

VIRGO, *vir'go* (the virgin), the sixth sign of the zodiac, represented by the sign ♍. The principal star of this constellation is Spica, one of the lesser first-magnitude stars. The sun enters the constellation of Virgo about August 20th.

VIRUS. As the term is used in medicine, it means disease poison, particularly the poison by which disease is conveyed from one person to another by contact. Formerly the application of the term was restricted to such diseases as measles, scarlet fever and smallpox, but the culture of any bacteria may be called a virus. The term is also applied to the vaccine used in vaccination.

Related Articles Consult the following titles for additional information:

Antitoxin	Medicine
Bacteriology	Vaccination
Germ Theory	Vaccine Therapy

VISCOUNT, *vɪskoʊnt*, originally, in English usage, the officer who acted as deputy to a count or earl. As a hereditary title, it was first granted to John Beaumont, in 1440. A viscount is "Right Honorable" and is styled "My Lord." His wife is a viscountess, and his children are addressed as "Honorable."

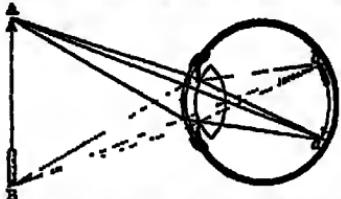
VISHNU, the second of the three great Hindu gods, by his special worshipers considered to be the greatest. In the early Vedas he was not regarded as the most exalted deity, but this rank was accorded to him by the later writers. The myths relating to Vishnu are characterized by the idea that whenever a great physical or moral disorder affected the world, Vishnu descended to set it right. He is generally represented as having four hands, in which he holds a conch-shell, blown in battle, a disk, the symbol of supreme power, a mace, the emblem of punishment, and a lotus, the sign of the creative power. Often he is shown as riding on a being, half man and half bird. See BRAHMA, SIVA.

VISIBLE SPEECH, a term applied by Prof. A. Melville Bell, its inventor, to a system of alphabetical characters, designed to represent every possible articulate utterance of the organs of speech. The system is based

or an exhaustive classification of the possible actions of the speech organs, each organ and every mode of action having its appropriate symbol. It is said that this invention is of great utility in teaching the deaf and dumb to comprehend spoken words and in aiding students of foreign languages to acquire their pronunciation from books.

VISIGOTHS, *vis'igōths*. See GOTHS.

VISION, *vish'ən*, or **SIGHT**, the act of perceiving objects through the eye. As an optical instrument, the eye closely resembles a camera, the cornea and crystalline lens



corresponding to the lens of a camera, and the retina corresponding to the screen. The rods and cones of the retina are sensitive only to the light, and their great number and variety enables the perfect eye to respond to light waves producing all colors. Rays of light entering the eye through the pupil are refracted, and they cross just back of the lens, the rays from A coming to a focus on the retina at a, and those at B coming to a focus at b, thus forming an inverted image on the retina. This may be observed by carefully cutting away the sclerotic coat from around the optic nerve of an eye taken from one of the lower animals, exposing the retina over an area about the size of a dime, and holding the eye towards a lighted lamp in a darkened room. An image of the lamp inverted on the retina can be plainly seen.

Phylogeny of Vision Though the image may fall on the retina of a dead eye, there can be no vision in such case, as vision must depend upon the action of the living optic nerve.

The sensory fibers of the optic nerve originate in the optic centers of the brain. These fibers meet and cross at the base of the brain, forming the *optic commissure*, from which the optic nerves extend to each eye. In the commissure, half of the fibers cross, so that each optic nerve consists of half of the fibers from its own optic center and half of the fibers from the optic center on the opposite side of the brain. On reaching the eye, these

fibers are so distributed that those from the right optic center form the right half of the retina in each eye, and those from the left center form the left half. When the rods and cones are stimulated, impulses are transmitted along the optic nerves and optic tracts to the centers of unconscious sight in the brain. From these centers, other nerves extend to the centers of vision, and when the stimuli are strong enough to cause impulses to be transmitted to these centers, the person becomes conscious of them and sees the object. This is completed vision, and the image is retained in memory for a greater or less length of time, depending upon the strength of the stimuli and mental condition at the time the vision occurs. Consciousness and memory are mental activities, so that complete, intelligent vision depends upon mental, as well as physical action.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

Camera	Eye	Light
Color	Lens	Memory

VITAMINE, *vītā'mīn*, a term applied to certain substances found in minute quantities in natural foodstuffs. Little is known concerning their constitution or how they act to promote growth and prevent disease. They have no direct food value in themselves, they do not in themselves supply energy to build tissue. Yet they are absolutely essential for growth and health. At least seven kinds of vitamins are known and a proper distribution of these in food is essential to a nourishing diet.

The vitamins are classified as follows:

A Promotes growth, prevents disease in general. Present in milk, butter, eggs, and green-leaf vegetables.

B Divided into F and G. Present in fresh vegetables, yeast and cereals.

C Prevents scurvy. Present in juices of the tomato, the orange, and the lemon.

D Prevents rickets. Present in cod liver oil and in some green vegetables.

E Necessary for reproduction and growth of young animals. Present in wheat germ and lettuce.

F Lack of this leads to loss of appetite, nervousness, spasms, etc.

G Prevents the disease known as pellagra.

VITAL STATISTICS See POPULATION, subhead *Vital Statistics*.

VITRIOL, *vitrē'ēl*, or, the common name given to strong sulphuric acid. See SULPHURIC ACID.

VIVISECTION, *viv'isēk'shən*, physiological investigation on living animals for the

purpose of discovering or demonstrating some fact of physiology. The term, which literally means the *cutting of the living*, was formerly employed to designate only cutting operations upon living animals for purposes of experiment. To-day it has a broader application and includes the inoculating with disease germs, experimenting with drugs, medicines, foods, with the effects of temperature upon living organisms, as well as cutting operations involving nerves, arteries and vital organs.

Vivisection has been generally regarded as the necessary means of acquiring physiological knowledge. Practically our entire knowledge of bacteriology and of the effects of drugs and medicines has been gained through this method of investigation, and nearly every operation and appliance to relieve pain or save life has been made possible through it. The facts concerning the circulation of the blood, respiration, digestion and the functions of the nervous system have been discovered by means of vivisection. The experiments are usually conducted in the most humane manner possible. The animals are placed whenever possible under the influence of anesthetics and suffer little or no pain. If an experiment necessitates the mutilation of the subject, the animal is put to death while it is still insensible.

VIZIER, *vī'zēr*, a high official in Mohammedan countries, particularly the prime minister to the sultan, known as the grand vizier and possessing powers second only to the ruler himself.

VLADIVOSTOK, *vīl'dyōsōk tōkō*, Siberia, the chief commercial and naval port of the country on the Pacific, the eastern terminus of the Trans-Siberian Railway. The city lies at the southern end of a peninsula, on an arm of the Sea of Japan. It has a fine harbor, ice-free nine months of the year, and is connected by steamer line with Japanese, Korean, North Siberian and North American ports. The city is impressive in appearance when viewed from the magnificent bay, but on closer inspection is disappointing. During the World War great quantities of war supplies were deposited at Vladivostok, and after the Bolsheviks overthrew the government in Russia the allies landed troops in the city to guard the supplies and maintain order. Vice was rampant in the troubled days of the war. Population, 1933, 190,000. See **SIBERIA**.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, that type of education designed to prepare young people for their life work. As the term is ordinarily used, it applies to education below college grade, but in its broadest sense it should include preparation for professions as well as occupations. Since the beginning of the present century, vocational education has made rapid progress everywhere in Europe and America.

When the United States entered the World War in 1917, the government at once discovered the dearth of skilled workmen in all the trades in which increased activity became at once a vital necessity. Especially was there a scarcity of mechanics, carpenters and shipbuilders, and to supply the demand, the government entered upon a campaign of industrial training on a scale never before undertaken. This campaign was conducted by the committee on Education and Special Training of the War Department. Colleges, technical schools and high schools followed the lead of this committee, and the progress in vocational education in the two years following the declaration of war exceeded that during the ten years preceding that date.

The labor conditions confronting the government led to a thorough study, on the part of educators, of the relation of the schools to this condition. Some of the most far-reaching causes of the lack of skilled workmen were found to be, first, dropping the old apprenticeship system without providing anything to take its place, and the rise of the factory system, involving the extensive use of machines which do not require skilled operatives; second, lack of education. Only one-fourth of the pupils who enter the primary grades of the public schools complete the work of the eighth grade, and nearly one-half of them leave school before they reach the seventh grade. Most of these boys and girls go to work with practically no foundation for mental development, and only a few of them become skilled workmen in any occupation requiring a trained mind.

A majority of these pupils leave school because they find no interest in the subjects presented in the course of study and because their parents are unable to realize the importance to their children's success, or at least, an elementary education, whatever occupation they may follow. If the course of study could be so changed as to relate it more vital to the occupations of life, it is agreed that

most of these pupils could be retained in school. Under the leadership of the United States Bureau of Education the leading educators made such revisions of the courses of study as enabled them to provide more liberally for vocational subjects and vocational guidance.

Vocational Guidance Vocational guidance is the first step in vocational education. For lack of it at the proper time, many boys and girls become misfits for life. By vocational guidance is meant that friendly interest in and oversight of boys and girls that will keep them in school, hold up to them ideals worth following, and lead them to have a definite purpose in life. This oversight should be given by both parents and teachers, and should always be kindly and sympathetic. Its ultimate aim should be to lead boys and girls to choose their life work deliberately, and to make such choices as will harmonize with their respective desires and aptitudes and lead to a successful career. Proper vocational guidance does not force boys and girls to choose occupations before they are old enough to know what they want to do. On the contrary, it strives to prevent them from making choices hastily.

Vocational guidance is especially helpful to boys and girls between twelve and sixteen years of age. It should help them "to a better understanding of their own abilities, of the opportunities afforded to do the world's work and of the best possible use to be made of such abilities and opportunities." Between fourteen and sixteen years of age, both boys and girls leave school in large numbers. A wise vocational counselor may influence many of them to remain in school for one or two years more. But he should follow with equal care those who go into the various lines of industry. These young people should be encouraged to continue their education while at work, and all possible assistance should be given them.

The competent vocational counselor also keeps in touch with the employer. While noting the industry and the efficiency of these young people, he likewise notices the conditions under which they work, and whether or not the occupation in which each is engaged is suited to the worker's strength and aptitude. When one is found working amidst undesirable surroundings or at an occupation for which he is in no wise fitted, a change is recommended. On the other hand, boys and

girls should be encouraged to give the occupations they have respectively entered upon a fair trial, to put their best efforts into their work and to learn all they can about the business or trade in which they are engaged.

Pre-Vocational Education Pre-vocational training is designed to assist young people who have not chosen a vocation in making such a choice. In large cities where there are schools equipped for carrying on various lines of industry the pupils are given opportunity to try out different vocations. But in addition to this, instruction is given upon the advantages, possibilities and disadvantages of each occupation, so each pupil may have a fair understanding of the relative position in the world's industry which the vocation he chooses holds. The bearing of the different branches in the course of study upon the various occupations should also be explained, and courses of reading should be suggested. The Junior High School is an important aid in this phase of the vocational education (see *High School*, subhead *Junior High School*).

Vocational Schools About eighty-five per cent of the pupils trained in the public schools earn their living through industrial processes, and vocational schools are designed to fit young people for useful occupations. They differ from the old style manual training school in training their pupils specifically to enter upon some occupation, while the instruction in the manual training school is more for the purpose of training the hand for the cultural value derived from such training.

Vocational schools are elementary in character, but they do not receive pupils under fourteen years of age. The courses are usually two years in length, a few schools have three-year courses. In most of the schools the time is about equally divided between book-work and shop-work. The school work includes English, mechanical drawing, mathematics and other closely-related subjects. The shop-work is taught by practical men. Many evening schools are largely vocational.

Continuation Schools There is an increasing demand for better educated workmen in all lines of industry. Many boys and girls and men and women have entered upon their chosen vocations with less than a com-

mon school education, and the purpose of continuation schools is to enable these people to continue their school work while following their occupations. Students in these schools may pursue lines of work that will perfect them in some special industry, or they may continue their general education. Evening schools may be considered a branch of continuation schools. The most successful schools of this type are those where arrangements are made with the employer by which the student is allowed to spend a part of the day at work and the remainder at school. In some schools the students are allowed credit for this outside work. Schools operating on this plan are sometimes called cooperative schools.

Technical High Schools. Technical high schools have become a feature in the school systems of most large cities. Such schools aim to prepare trained workers for leadership in the industrial world, for positions of higher rank than those of skilled mechanics. Cleveland and Chicago took the lead in introducing industrial courses in high school work, and these and other cities have such special schools.

The textile industry in the United States supports a number of schools which are closely allied to the high schools. Prominent among these are the Textile School of the Pennsylvania Museum at Philadelphia, and three schools in Massachusetts, at Fall River, New Bedford and Lowell, all three cities being great cloth manufacturing centers. These schools, which are partly supported by the state, turn out mature students able to fill important positions in the textile mills. Secondary schools, such as the Lewis Institute at Chicago, the Drexel Institute at Philadelphia, and the Pratt Institute at Brooklyn, now offer similar courses of training.

Trade Schools. Trade schools have been developed to take the place of the apprenticeship system. The first important one in the United States, the New York Trade School, was founded in 1881, and was intended primarily for the mechanics in the building trades. A number of other important schools were established in the next thirty years, but not until 1910 was there a notable increase in the number of trade schools. Many of the schools, like the Baron de Hirsch School in New York, are privately endowed. In Chicago, Milwaukee, Philadelphia, Indianapolis, Worcester and Portland, Oregon,

are trade schools supported wholly or in part by the municipality.

United States Aid. The most important factor in promoting vocational education in the United States is the Smith-Hughes Act, which became effective in February, 1917. This law is explained under HIGH SCHOOL (which see). The passage of this bill, for which the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education had labored for ten years, marked the beginning of a new educational policy, in granting Federal aid to schools below collegiate grade which are not state institutions. This act supplements the Morrill Act, which provided for the state agricultural colleges and experiment stations, and it makes provision for the training of a large group of the population that cannot be reached directly by the Federal government. The provision of the act requiring the state governments to cooperate with the Federal government in order to derive any benefit from the appropriation places vocational education on a permanent basis in every state.

Aid to Soldiers. In June, 1918, Congress passed a law providing for the vocational education of disabled soldiers and sailors on their return to civil life. The responsibility for this training is placed with the Federal Board of Vocational Education, and the plan provides for the cooperation of the War and Navy departments, the Bureau of War Risk Insurance and the labor exchanges in the Department of Labor. The scope of the work includes completion of the training for such occupation as the soldier may choose and placing him in industry.

Another important phase of vocational education among the soldiers is the Students' Army Training Corps. The aim of this corps is "to train officer-candidates and technical experts of all kinds to meet the needs of the service." Soon after the organization of this work it was placed in operation in over 550 colleges, universities, professional, technical and trade schools of the country. The corps was divided into two sections—collegiate, or section A, and vocational, or section B. The work in section B dealt largely with the difficulty confronting the government at the beginning of the war, and stated in the opening paragraph of this article. In order to accomplish the work necessary within a given time, the soldiers were assigned to the various schools and colleges of the coun-

try, where they remained under military discipline and were given industrial instruction, including shop practice for periods of two months each, one unit following another until the training was completed.

Effect Upon the Educational System. The work of the section B units of the Students' Army Training Corps is considered to have been the most significant experiment in vocational education undertaken under a democratic form of government, and the influence upon the American educational system has been far-reaching. The results derived from these short courses have demonstrated beyond doubt the feasibility of short and incomplete courses and shop periods. It is necessary for the student to devote enough time to vocational training to work out the processes completely. This experiment also demonstrated the necessity of a more general development of the continuation school and upon a much larger scale than has yet been contemplated.

Another fact learned from the recent study of vocational education is that laws relating to general education, laws relating to vocational education and laws relating to child labor are not coordinated. Until such coordination is made in both state and national laws, the most efficient work in education cannot be done.

VOD'KA, an alcoholic liquor distilled from corn, rye, or potatoes, or from barley mixed with potatoes and oats, or from potatoes and molasses. It is "hard liquor" of a most potent sort, for its natural alcoholic content varies from 60 to 90 per cent, before it is retailed the amount of alcohol is reduced by dilution to about 40 per cent. Vodka is strictly a Russian drink, and is the national beverage. During the World War the czar prohibited its manufacture, in 1922 the Soviet government restored its sale as a state monopoly, and from it derives a very large revenue.

VOICE, *sens*, sound emitted by the vocal cords of persons and animals, by means of which they communicate to one another their thoughts or emotions. The organ of the voice is the larynx, a cartilaginous box at the top of the trachea, or windpipe, capable of more delicate adjustment than any musical instrument. Across its top are stretched highly-sensitive and delicate mucous membranes, the edges of which are specialized to form the vocal cords. Sound is produced by

a blast of air forced from the lungs upward through the glottis, or opening between the cords.

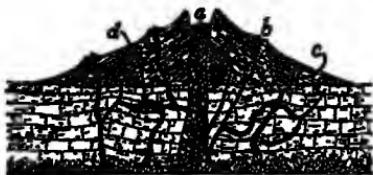
The pitch of the voice depends upon the tension of the vocal cords, the greater the tension, the higher the note produced. During the emission of acute sounds, the glottis contracts to a mere line. A deep rumbling sound is made by relaxed cords. The strength or loudness of the voice depends on the energy of the respiratory blast. Its quality depends upon the form and thickness of the cords, and is modified by the varying position of tongue, teeth and lips.

In the speaking voice, the notes have nearly all the same pitch, variety being mainly achieved through articulation in the mouth. The musical voice makes use of a larger number of notes, and their vibrations correspond to the notes of the musical scale. In singing, the vocal cords are under greater tension than in speaking. The principal difference between male and female voices lies in their pitch. The female vocal cords are shorter than those of the male, therefore their pitch is correspondingly higher. The male singing voice is classed as tenor, or bass, according to quality, and the female as soprano or contralto. The combined range of both covers about four octaves. A boy's voice is alto or soprano, because the vocal cords are no longer than those of the female. Change of voice in the adolescent boy, when the voice cracks or breaks, is due to rapid change in the larynx and temporary imperfect muscular control. See LARYNX.

VO'LAFUK, an artificial language invented by Johann Martin Schleyer, a German priest, and published by him in 1879. It was intended for use as an international language, but the hope of its friends has never been realized. Volapuk is extremely simple and regular in construction, and the orthography is entirely phonetic, the words being pronounced as they are written. The root words are derived from all the languages of Europe. Volapuk at first attracted many students, and international congresses were held in 1884, 1887 and 1889. Disagreements among its adherents regarding reforms in the language retarded the movement and ultimately led to the development of new and rival systems. See HARRAKTO.

VOLCANO, *vol'ka'no*, a mountain that has one or more openings through which heated matter is thrown from the interior. The

parts of a volcano are shown in the illustration below. The base comprises the walls and often blends with the cone so completely that no line of separation can be discovered. The term *cone* is usually applied to the upper



VOLCANO

(a) Crater, (b) Extinct crater, (c) Crevice, (d) Steam cavity

and more recently formed portion of the volcano. In its summit is the opening called the *crater*. Leading from the crater down into the interior of the mountain is the *vent*, or *chimney*.

The form of the volcano depends quite largely upon the material thrown out. If this is ashes or thick viscous lava, that does not flow rapidly, the slopes of the mountain are steep and may be quite regular, as in the case of Vesuvius, Etna and many of the volcanoes of the Andes. If the material is of molten lava, that flows freely, a low, flat mountain, with gentle slopes, is formed. The volcanoes of Hawaii are the best illustrations of this type. In these volcanoes the flow of lava seldom takes place through an opening at the summit, but an outlet is forced through one or more crevices in the sides of the mountain. The crater is large and shallow and contains numerous vents, surrounded by small cones. Between these may also be found pools of molten lava.

In size, volcanoes vary from low mountains, comparatively small, like those in the vicinity of the Mediterranean, to great peaks, whose summits are from 17,000 to 20,000 feet above the sea, as is seen in the volcanoes of the Andes and the highest peaks of the Rocky Mountains, which are extinct volcanoes.

Volcanoes are classified as active, dormant and extinct. Active volcanoes are those either in continuous or frequent action. Dormant volcanoes are those which are active only at long intervals, and extinct volcanoes are those which have ceased action altogether. There is, however, no absolute division, as a volcano may pass from one class into another without warning, that is, a dormant or extinct volcano

may become active, and an active volcano may become extinct.

Eruptions. The nature of the eruption is determined by the character of the material thrown out, and its violence is usually proportional to the length of time the mountain has been quiet. Volcanoes accustomed to throw out molten lava seldom eject ashes in large quantities. At the beginning, the lava flows rapidly, but as it cools it crusts over and flows more and more slowly until its motion ceases. The flow destroys everything in the path of the fiery stream, and the eruption often causes great devastation, suffering and loss of life. Some eruptions are characterized only by solid matter and steam. The solid matter is in the form of masses of rock, gravel, sand and dust, or ashes. These rise to a great height and are often carried through the atmosphere for many miles.

The causes of volcano action are not well understood; but the chief cause is generally believed to be the contact of water with highly heated portions of the earth's interior. The violence of the action is supposed to be due to the expansive force of steam that has suddenly been released from great pressure. The steam forces out the ashes. The flow of lava is probably caused by its being squeezed into the fissure by the movements of the earth's crust. Some geologists believe that there are lakes of molten rock in various places in the interior of the earth, and that these are subject to tides like those on the ocean. They reason that the increased pressure caused by these tides may now and then force an opening in the earth's crust through which the heated matter is thrown out. An eruption is usually preceded by an increase in temperature of the land at the base and on the sides of the mountain, the drying up of springs and wells and frequently by local earthquakes. The most disastrous eruptions, as affecting loss of life, were the eruption of Vesuvius, A.D. 79, Krakatoa, in 1883, and Mount Pelee, on the island of Martinique, in 1902. At this eruption over thirty thousand people lost their lives within a few hours. The eruption of Mount Etna in 1611 was also very disastrous.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

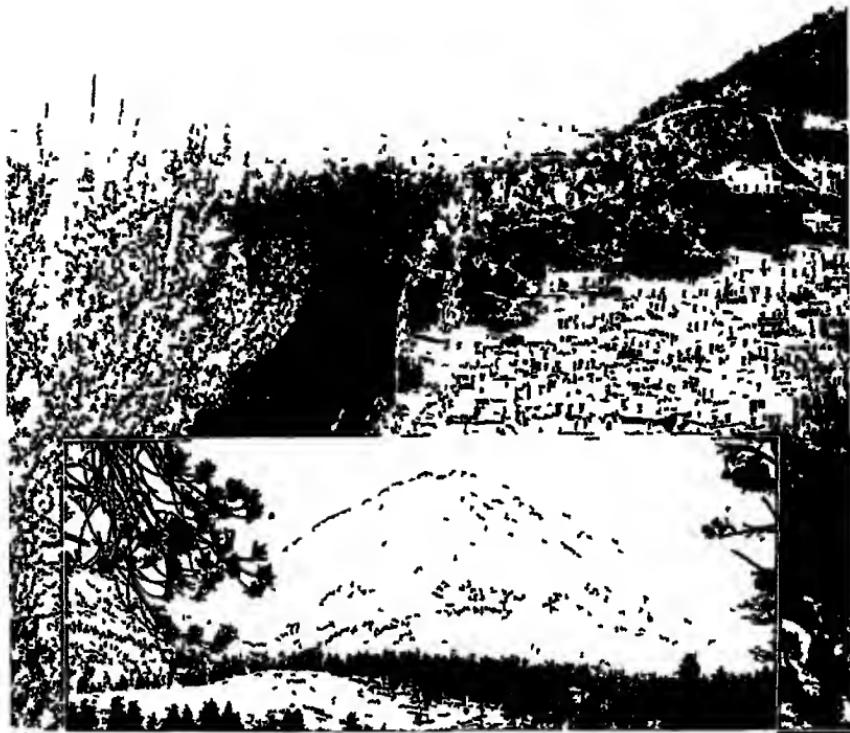
Aconcagua	Heraclianum	Mauna Loa
Ararat	Hood, Mount	Mountain
Cotopaxi	Kilimanjaro	Pompeii
Earthquake	Lava	Popocatepetl
Etna	Martinique	Rainier, Mount
Fujiyama	Mauna Kea	Vesuvius



VOLCANOES

Three of Java's many volcanoes. Cross section shows how subterranean forces effect an outlet in the earth's crust to release molten rock, ashes and gas. El Misti, a slumbering giant of Peru.

13 Detus Calvery 2 Philmont Photo Service



THREE FAMOUS VOLCANOES

Mount Vesuvius from across the Bay of Naples, Mount Lassen, California, last active in 1915, Fujiyama, Japan's sacred mountain

Spring Gallery

VOLE, an English name applied to several species of the rat family. The voles are widely distributed, being found in Europe,



FIELD VOLE

Africa, Asia and in North and South America. The water vole is about the same size as the brown rat, and it is often called a rat. It has dark brown or black fur, a tail about half the length of the body, and very strong hind feet, with five rounded pads on the lower surfaces. It burrows by the banks of streams and feeds for the most part on vegetable food. The field vole, or short-tailed field mouse, is about the size of a common mouse, but the body is stouter and the tail shorter. It has brownish-gray fur; its hind feet have six pads. It lives in fields and woods, feeds on vegetable food, is very prolific and often does much damage to grain and other crops. The bank vole is like the field vole, but it has a rusty-colored back, larger ears and a longer tail.

VOL'GA, a river of Russia, the largest in Europe. It rises near the Valdai Hills, in the northwestern part of Russia, and flows in a circuitous course eastward and then southward, entering the Caspian Sea through a broad delta, a few miles below Astrakhan. The length of the river is about 2,300 miles, and it is navigable for nearly its entire course. The chief tributaries from the north and east are the Oka, the Sura and the Sarpa, and from the west, the Tvertsa, the Mologa, the Shchekma, the Kostroma, the Veluga, the Kama and the Samara. The width of the river varies from 420 feet to 700 feet and exceeds even 2,400 feet, at Nizni Novgorod. During the spring it sometimes overflows, when its width varies from one and one-fourth miles to three miles. By means of canals the Volga is connected with the Black, the Baltic and the White seas, and with other important navigable rivers, so that it constitutes one of the most important inland waterways of Europe. With its tributaries it traverses a region inhabited by 50,000,000 people.

VOLT, the unit employed in measuring electric pressure, such a pressure as will produce a flow of one ampere per second against a resistance of one ohm.

VOLTA, vol'ta, ALESSANDRO (1745-1827), an Italian scientist, famous for his researches and discoveries in physics and as the inventor of the voltaic battery, named after him. He was born at Como, Italy, where, in 1774, he became professor of physics in the Royal School. He previously made important investigations and discoveries in chemistry and physics, especially in electricity. In 1779 he became professor of physics in the University of Pavia, and remained there twenty-five years. He invented the electroscope, the electrical condenser, the voltaic pile and the voltaic cell, or battery. See ELECTRIC BATTERY.

VOLTATO CELL, or VOLTAIC BATTERY. See ELECTRIC BATTERY, ELECTRICITY, subhead *Volta's Electricity*.

VOLTAIRE, vol'tair, the assumed name of JEAN FRANÇOIS MARIE ARQUET (1694-1778), a French writer and philosopher, was born at Paris. His father, a notary, gave him the best education possible, and the young man was early recognized as a scholar. In 1718 a tragedy named *Oedipus* was brought out by him and was most enthusiastically received. He soon became a fashionable poet, and resided mainly at Paris, in the midst of the most brilliant society.

In 1726 he was imprisoned in the Bastille for having sent a challenge to the Chevalier Rohan, by whom he had been insulted, but he was liberated within a month and allowed to go to England. Here he resided till 1729, in friendship with some of the chief literary men of the day, and he acquired a knowledge of English literature. His *Hénriade*, an epic celebrating the exploits of Henry IV of France, was completed and published by subscription in England, and was widely read throughout Europe, except in France, from which country it was excluded by the government because of its forceful presentation of the idea of religious toleration.

After his return to France, Voltaire lived chiefly at Paris till 1734. During this period he raised himself from very moderate circumstances to a condition of affluence by successful monetary speculations. From 1734 to 1749 he resided with Madame du Châtelet at Cirey, in Lorraine, and he produced many plays during this period. After

the death of Madame du Châtelet, Voltaire accepted the oft-repeated invitations of Frederick the Great to live at his court, at Potsdam. Here he was received with great honor, but a series of disagreements with the king ended in Voltaire's retirement from the Prussian court in 1753. After some unsettled years he fixed his residence with his niece, Madame Denis, at Ferney, near the boundary of the Republic of Geneva, and here he received a constant succession of distinguished visitors and maintained a correspondence which included in its range most of the rulers and savants of Europe. In February, 1778, he returned to Paris, but died soon afterwards.

Voltaire's works embrace almost every branch of literature—poetry, the drama, romance, history, philosophy and even science. He produced no single literary masterpiece, his greatness lay in his power to discern fanaticism and superstition, and nearly all his works are strongly animated by a spirit of hostility to the priests and the religion they represented. He was one of the foremost of that band of writers whose revolt against conventions, openly and most forcefully expressed, was preparing the way for the French Revolution. It is the commonly accepted opinion that he was an atheist, but this has never been proved. Voltaire's literary fame chiefly rests on his philosophical novels, *Zadig*, *Candide*, *L'Ingénieur*; his histories, *The Age of Louis XIV*, *The History of Charles XII*, his correspondence, and more than all, perhaps, on his poetical satires, satires and occasional light poems, all of which exhibit wit, gauchery and grace.

VOLTMETER, an instrument for measuring the pressure of an electric current. It consists of a permanent steel horseshoe magnet, with a piece of soft iron attached to each pole. Between the poles, a soft iron cylinder is suspended, so that it can rotate vertically. Around this cylinder is a light rectangular frame of copper, wound with a coil of insulated wire. Spiral springs are attached at each end of the frame, and a needle, which moves over a graduated dial, is attached to the upper end of the axis. When an electric current passes through the coil or wire, it causes the copper frame to turn upon its axis. The springs furnish an amount of resistance that must be overcome by the current, and the position of the needle on the dial indicates the pressure. Volt-

meters are used with dynamo electric machines. See **VOLT**.

VOLUNTEERS, citizens who, of their own accord, offer the state their services in a military capacity. The oldest volunteer force in Great Britain is the Honorable Artillery Company of the city of London, which received its charter of incorporation from Henry VIII. Until the second year of the World War Great Britain depended upon a volunteer army to take care of territorial defense, and its volunteer forces in 1914 numbered over 251,000. Not until May, 1916, was conscription put in force in Great Britain. It was applied to England, Scotland and Wales, but not to Ireland, which, however, sent large numbers of volunteers to the front. Canada contributed a volunteer army of over 400,000, but adopted conscription in December, 1917. New Zealand, South Africa and Australia relied wholly on volunteering, and all contributed generously. In all of the other allied nations, as well as in the enemy countries, conscription had been a permanent policy before the war.

In the United States, the volunteers in American armies played an important part in all wars before America's entrance into the World War. Though conscription was resorted to in the Civil War, about 2,500,000 enrolled voluntarily on the Union side, and half as many on the Confederate. Volunteers and regulars made up the American army of the Spanish-American War. In the World War there were calls for volunteers in special branches of the service, and the state national guards were classed as volunteers, but the bulk of the great army that contributed so much to the defeat of Germany was made up of men enrolled through the selective draft. This was the first time that America ever enrolled all of its men under forty-six years of age for military service. Navies are usually recruited through volunteering, but this is a matter of custom and precedent. See **CONSCRIPTION**; **WORLD WAR**.

VOLUNTEERS OF AMERICA, a religious and philanthropic organization, formerly the American branch of the Salvation Army. In 1896 Ballington Booth, head of the Salvation Army in America, believing that the methods of his father, William Booth, were not perfectly suited to conditions in America, severed the connection of his branch which, thenceforth, has had an independent

existence. The main purpose of the English and the American bodies, however, has remained the same.

The Volunteers are organized on a semi-military plan, and the officers bear military titles. They support various benevolent institutions. Lodging houses for destitute men and women and fresh-air camps for women and children are among their most important charities. A great quantity of Christian literature is distributed, and open-air religious services are conducted on the streets. A Volunteer Hospital has been established in New York City, where needy cases are taken care of. The official organ of the society is *The Volunteers' Gazette*, published at its headquarters in New York. General Ballington Booth and his wife, Mand Ballington Booth, are joint commanders. See SALVATION ARMY.

VOMITING, the forcible expulsion of matter from the stomach, through the oesophagus, or gullet. It is not a disease in itself, but it is a symptom common to numerous diseases, or as an accompaniment of extreme nervous sensitiveness. The treatment of vomiting depends upon its cause and upon the disease, if any, which accompanies it. Lying down, the application of mustard to the pit of the stomach, or small doses of soda, ice, whisky or coffee will sometimes relieve it. While sudden and violent vomiting in a healthy person is an indication of some poisonous substance in the stomach, yet very frequently vomiting is nature's method of relieving an overloaded stomach. See NAUSICA.

VORTICELLA, *vor tis'eh lə*, or **BELL ANIMALCULE**, *an' imal'kyü lə*, a genus of infusoria, or one-celled animals characterized by a bell-shaped body, the opening of which is surrounded by tiny hairs, or cilia. These cilia are kept in constant and rapid motion, whereby they draw in particles of food. At the opposite end of the body is a slender stem, by means of which the animal attaches itself to objects in the water, such as rocks or weeds. This stem also moves, with a spiral springlike motion, and may be drawn up into the body when the animal wishes to detach itself from its moorings and swim freely about.

VOSGES, *voh'zhə*, **MOUNTAINS**, a chain of mountains about 100 miles long, extending in a north-northeast direction along the frontiers of Alsace in France, their course being nearly parallel with that of the Rhine. They

are separated from the Jura Mountains by the valley of the Doubs on the south. The Vosges are composed chiefly of granite and are covered with forests of pine and beech to a height of about 3,600 feet, beyond which their summits, which are rounded in form, are grassy. The highest peak is Ballon de Guebwiller, 4,067 feet. These mountains contain considerable silver, copper, lead and coal and large quantities of rock salt. Some of the bitter fighting of the World War took place in the Vosges region.

VOTE See ELECTION, BALLOT.

VOTING MACHINE, a device for automatically registering and counting votes, having the advantages of secrecy, simplicity, rapidity of registration and counting and the avoidance of duplication.

In most patterns of voting machines, the voter enters the booth, and not till all the curtains are closed will the machine register his vote. The names of the candidates are arranged in order, either by parties or alphabetically. The voter can either vote a straight ticket or can vote for individual candidates. In the former case, either by the use of a key or by means of a lever, he registers a vote and thus locks the mechanism, so that he cannot vote further, unless, by turning back the lever, he cancels his first vote. If he wishes to split the ticket, he turns a lever or key for one candidate for each office, and is prevented thereby from voting for any other candidate. As he leaves the booth, by opening the curtains or doors at the exit he sets the machine for the next voter. Each vote cast for each office or for a straight ticket is registered by a patent device on a slip of paper, so that as soon as the last vote is cast, the final returns are ready to be announced. Many states have authorized the use of voting machines at the option of the local authorities.

VOWEL, an open sound made by the voice in speaking, distinguished from the consonant sounds, which are made with the organs of speech more or less closed. Vowels may be sounded by themselves, but consonants can be pronounced only in combination with vowels. In English, the vowel sounds are represented by the letters, *a, e, i, o, u*, and sometimes *w* and *y*. Each really represents several sounds, as the *a*-sounds in the words *father, flesh, hell, what, any, prefer, final* and *abound*. Most other languages have vowel sounds which the English does

not possess. A more detailed discussion of vowels may be found in the article ORTHOGRAPHY.

VULCAN, called by the Greeks Hephaestus, in classical mythology, the god who presided over fire and the working of metals, and who patronized handcraftsmen of every kind. He was the son of Jupiter and Juno, but, unlike the other gods, he was seriously lame. By some writers he was said to have been born lame, and for that reason he was believed to have been thrown by his mother from Olympus, but by others his lameness is attributed to his having been thrown from Olympus by Jupiter, for interfering in Juno's behalf in a quarrel between her and Jupiter.

VULCANIZING. See RUBBER AND RUBBER MANUFACTURE.

VULGATE, the Latin translation of the Bible, which has, in the Roman Catholic Church, official authority, and which the Council of Trent, in its fourth session, on May 27, 1546, declared "shall be held as authentic in all public lectures, disputations, sermons and expositions, and that no one shall presume to reject it under any pretense whatsoever." Even in the early period of the Church, a Latin translation of the Old Testament existed, made not from the Hebrew, but from the Septuagint. Saint Jerome found that this translation was not always accurate, and between A.D. 385 and 405 he made a new Latin translation from the Hebrew, with the aid of the best Greek translations. This at first met with the greatest opposition, as the Septuagint was regarded as an inspired translation, and any deviation from it was considered sacrilegious. Before his death Jerome had justified himself and proved the purity of his intentions, but it was not until the ninth century that his version came to be used throughout the Church and not until centuries later that it was authorized. The version now in use is the edition published by Clement VIII. in 1592.

VULTURE, the common name for a class of carrion-eating birds, characterized by necks destitute of feathers and by elongated beaks, with curved upper mandibles. Their talons are not relatively strong, and in tear-



VULTURES
1, Grimm, 2, Pondicherry

ing their prey they make more use of their beaks than of their claws. Vultures are usually of a cowardly disposition and will not attack live animals, unless the latter are seriously wounded or dying, as they feed almost entirely on decaying animal flesh. They fly high in the air and detect their prey from great distances. They are valuable scavengers in all warm and tropical countries. The California vulture has a long, flat, orange-colored head and dull black plumage, with a grayish wing band. It builds a loose nest of sticks, in a hollow in a tree or cliff, and lays one round, greenish-white egg. The Egyptian species, called "Pharaoh's hen," is found in the countries bordering the Mediterranean. See CONDOR, TURKEY Buzzard.



W, the twenty-third letter of the English alphabet. It is formed, as its name indicates, by doubling the *a* or *e*, and before it appeared as a separate character in English its sound was sometimes represented by *uu* or *ee*. At the end of words or syllables it is either silent, as in *low*, or it modifies the preceding vowel, as in *new*, *how*, having then the power of a vowel.

WABASH, *waw'baš*, *Inn*, the county seat of Wabash County, forty-two miles southwest of Fort Wayne, on the Wabash River and on the Big Four and the Wabash railroads. It is surrounded by a rich agricultural and stock-raising region. Its industries include railroad shops, bridge and iron works, cabinet and motor truck factories and woolen and lumber mills. The city is built in rock and is hilly even in the business section. It has a Federal building, Carnegie Library, Masonic Temple and Memorial Hall. Wabash was settled and incorporated in 1837, and was chartered as a city in 1866. Population, 1920, 8,872; in 1930, 8,840, a loss of 10 per cent.

WABASH RIVER, a river 550 miles in length, rising in the western part of Ohio, flowing northward, westward then southward into the Ohio thirty miles below Evansville, Ind. It crosses Indiana, and in the latter part of its course forms a part of the boundary between Indiana and Illinois. It is navigable during high water as far as Lafayette, Ind., and at ordinary levels to Covington. Its chief tributary is the White River. Some of the principal towns on its banks are Wabash, Peru, Logansport, Lafayette, Covington, Terre Haute and Vincennes.

WAERT AM RHEIN, *Dix* ("the Watch on the Rhine"), a German patriotic song. The words were written by Max Schneckenburger in 1840, when the left bank of the Rhine seemed in danger of falling into the hands of

France. The music, by Kari Wilhelm, was composed in 1854.

WA'GO, *Tex*, the county seat of McLennan County, located ninety-seven miles southwest of Dallas, on the Brazos River and on the Texas Central, the Missouri, Kansas & Texas, the Saint Louis Southwestern, the Missouri Pacific, and the Southern Pacific railroads. There is a well-equipped airport, Rush Field. Water with medicinal properties obtained from artesian wells makes the city a popular health resort. It is surrounded by an agricultural and stock raising district, and is the center of a large wholesale business. There are grain elevators, flour mills, cotton and woolen mills, foundries, machine shops, bottling works and packing houses. Notable buildings are the Waco Natatorium, a Federal building, a Carnegie Library, courthouse and Masonic Temple. Baylor University, Sacred Heart Academy, and Paul Quinn College are located here.

Waco was laid out in 1849 and was incorporated the next year. It has adopted the city manager form of government. Population, 1920, 38,500; in 1930, 52,848, a gain of 37 per cent.

WADAI, *wa'dai*, formerly a native state in the central part of Africa, annexed to the French Congo in 1909. The boundaries are indefinite, but the area is estimated at 170,000 square miles. The surface is mostly of a desert character, but there are oases scattered through the region, and in some sections there are fertile tracts covered with forests. The population, estimated at 2,000,000, is composed chiefly of negroes and Arabs, who are Mohammedans. The capital is Abesir, and it is connected with Bongazi by caravan route.

WAGER, *wa'jer*, a bet, also something staked on any uncertain outcome of an issue, such as the result of a contest, or the m-

evitable alternative in events, such as elections and the weather. The party whose opinion proves to be correct receives what has been staked by both. By statutes of England, Scotland and the United States, all contracts or agreements, whether oral or in writing, depending on wagers, are null and void, and money due thereon cannot be recovered in any court of law. A wager is therefore called a *debt of honor*, since it cannot be collected except through the good faith of the parties.

WAGES, *wājēz* In modern industry production requires land, capital and labor. The payment for land is *rent*; the payment for capital is *interest*, and the payment for labor is *wages*. In the common meaning of the term *wages* is the money one man receives for working for another. Wages may be classified as *nominal* and *real*. Nominal wages are the wages expressed in money, or as an absolute quantity, as five dollars a day. Real wages denote the purchasing value of the money received. To illustrate. If the cost of living advances and a laborer's wage remains the same, his real wage is lowered. If a bricklayer who received five dollars a day during a certain year received the same wage in later years when living costs were 50 per cent greater, his real wage then was only two-thirds of what it was in the first instance. To enable him to maintain his standards, his later wage would have to be increased to seven and one-half dollars.

Difference in Wages In economics, labor is considered as a commodity, the same as land, building material or wheat, and one of the chief causes in fixing wages is the law of supply and demand, other conditions being equal. When there are more laborers than production requires, wages will be low, when laborers are scarce, producers bid for their services, and wages are high. Wages in some occupations are higher than in others because of the nature of the occupation. Permanency of occupation, for instance, is an important factor in fixing wages. One can afford to work for a lower wage at an occupation which furnishes employment the year round than at an occupation which furnishes employment only part of the time. Skilled labor commands higher wages than unskilled labor, and dangerous occupations higher than those not considered as dangerous.

Wages and Profit Sharing. Many large firms distribute periodically among their employees a certain per cent of their profits

From the viewpoint of economics, their share of profit should not be considered as wages, but from the practical viewpoint of both employer and employee it is considered as so much additional compensation, or so much increase of the laborer's share of production.

Influence of Labor Organizations Labor organizations have in many instances secured higher wages for their members than could have been secured without organization, because the organization can resort to collective bargaining and force upon employers terms that the workmen individually cannot secure. On the other hand, the uniformity of wages thus secured may work injustice to the most efficient laborers, who under individual initiative could increase their output and are thus deprived of their full share of production.

The Wage Problem. The problem of wages is always before the industrial world, and it is the supreme cause of conflict between capital and labor. There are those who believe that capital and labor are and ever must be antagonists, and that the capitalist class should be dispossessed of their property. The socialists claim that all sources of production should be the property of the state and that the laborer should receive all the profits for his work. Present legislation is toward more settled relations between capital and labor, and toward just compensation of laborers.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:
 Capital Profit Sharing
 Labor Organizations Socialism

WAGNER, *vāg' nər*, WILHELM RICHARD (1813-1883), a German composer, poet and miscellaneous writer, born at Leipzig. He received his education at Leipzig and Dresden and after 1834 filled various musical engagements at Magdeburg, Bremen and Königsberg. In 1839 he went to Paris and London and there composed his operas *Rienzi* and *The Flying Dutchman*. The brilliant WILHELM RICHARD success of the operas secured him the conductorship at the Royal Opera of Dresden in 1843. He joined the



insurrectionary movement of 1848 and was compelled to exile himself. Until his return to Germany, in 1864, he spent most of his time in Switzerland, Italy, Paris and London. His *Tannhäuser* and *Lohengrin* appeared in 1845 and 1850, respectively. The king of Bavaria, Louis II, became an enthusiastic patron of Wagner, and the theater at Bayreuth, especially built for Wagner by the contributions of Wagner societies throughout the world, was chiefly supported from the king's purse. Here the famous tetralogy *Der Ring des Nibelungen*, consisting of *Das Rheingold*, *Die Walküre*, *Siegfried* and *Götterdämmerung* was first performed in 1876. About a year before his death Wagner wrote *Parsifal*, which has since been produced with emphatic success. He gave to his works a national character by selecting his subjects from old German legends. His theory, founded upon the ideas of Glück and Weber, was that in a perfect musical drama, the three arts, poetry, music and dramatic representation, should be welded together into one well-balanced whole. His particular views on music are embodied in a well-known work, entitled *Oper und Drama*. See OPERA.

WAG'ON, a four-wheeled vehicle drawn by one or more horses and used for carrying passengers or merchandise. In cities they have been almost entirely displaced by motor trucks. Wagons are constructed of a great variety of patterns, the body being adapted to the particular use for which the vehicle is intended. Farm wagons have long rectangular boxes, so made that they can be taken off or put on the gear at will. Most of these wagons may also have the running-gear extended or shortened to suit the purpose for which the wagon is needed. Road wagons have a light running-gear, springs and upholstered seats. For practically every purpose, even in rural districts, the motor vehicle is supplanting the wagon. See CARRIAGE.

WAG'TAIL, a group of birds so called from their habit of jerking their long tails when running or perching. Though several species are common in Europe, rarely is the bird seen in the United States. The wagtails frequent muddy lands and pastures, running rapidly along the edge of water and catching the insects they find there. A species of wagtail breeds on the coasts of Alaska in summer, making its nest of woven roots and grasses on or near the ground. The eggs are white with brown spots.

WAITE, MORRISON RUMICK (1816-1888), an eminent American jurist, born at Lyme, Conn. He graduated at Yale in 1837 and was admitted to the bar two years later. He practiced successfully in Maumee City and Toledo, Ohio, was elected to the legislature and in 1871 was sent to Geneva as United States counsel in the Alabama case. President Grant appointed him to succeed Salmon P. Chase as Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States in 1874. He held the position until his death, winning esteem for his impartiality and learning. Among the important questions presented to the Supreme Court and decided during Chief Justice Waite's term were those affecting polygamy, election laws, the civil rights of negroes, the Bell telephone case, the power of removal by the President and the Chicago anarchist cases.

WAKE, the name given to the custom of holding vigil over the dead during the night preceding burial. While it is a part of the practice of numerous religions, in America it is witnessed only among Roman Catholics. The wake originally was observed in the Church of England, it had nothing to do with death, but was observed with prayer and singing to commemorate the anniversary or consecration and dedication of the parish church.

WAKE ISLAND, a tiny coral island in the Pacific Ocean designated as a regular station on the air line from California to Manila. It lies nearly 2,000 miles west of Hawaii, and belongs to the United States. Next to Guam it is the farthest outpost of the republic before the Philippine Islands are reached. Wake is 1,200 miles southwest of Midway Islands, 1,450 miles northeast of Guam, and about 2,950 miles from Manila. The island is not attractive, but its location is favorable for a communications depot. There is a wireless plant, and as a station on the air line it will be equipped with emergency repair shops. See map, article PACIFIC OCEAN.

WAKE-ROBIN, another name for the trillium (which see).

WALDENSES, *wal'den'ses*, a Christian sect founded in the twelfth century by Peter Waldo, a rich merchant of Lyons, France. About 1170 Waldo gave away his goods and his money to the poor and began preaching a life of poverty, chastity and obedience. While holding to the Roman Catholic faith,

he believed the people should be preached to in their own dialect, that religious writings should be translated into their language, and that each man should be his own interpreter of the Bible. His followers, known as "the Poor Men of Lyons," suffered many persecutions, and in 1281 were excommunicated by the Pope. Their chief strongholds then as now, were the Cottian Alps, southwest of Turin. Since 1848 they have had the same religious and political rights as other religious sects in Italy, where they number about 12,000. Branches of the Church have been established in Argentina, Uruguay and the United States.



A typical costume

WALES, *wæls*, the smallest division of Great Britain, situated in the southwestern part of the island, forming a peninsula between Bristol Channel, on the south, and the Irish Sea, on the north. It has an area of 7,466 square miles, or a little less than that of New Jersey. Population, 1931, 2,158,374. Its surface is mountainous in the north, where the ranges are an extension of those of England. The country is rich in minerals, particularly coal, iron, copper and slate,

and to these Wales owes its chief wealth. The coal trade is the most important and extensive, and the city of Cardiff on the Bristol Channel is one of the largest coal ports in the world. The presence of coal and iron ore has given rise to extensive iron and steel works, and there are also important woolen plants. Other manufactures include woolen goods, especially flannel, coarse cloth and hosiery.

Previous to the Roman occupation, Wales appears to have been inhabited by a mixture of primitive Iberians and invading Celts. During the latter part of the Roman occupation one of the four provinces into which the entire island was divided included Wales and was called *Britannia Secunda*. After the invasion of the Saxons the country acquired a distinctly national character, becoming the refuge of the Celts, or early Britons, who were gradually driven to the west. The country was conquered in the thirteenth

century by Edward I, who made his eldest son Prince of Wales, a title that has ever since been conferred upon the heir to the British crown. Succeeding this date there occurred a number of national uprisings, and the struggle for independence in Wales was not entirely suppressed till 1536, when the country became incorporated with England, and its inhabitants received all the privileges of English subjects. The language is Welsh, which is a branch of the Celts, different from that used by the Irish and the Scotch Highlanders. The political and educational systems of Wales are identical with those of England. See ENGLAND, GREAT BRITAIN; CHURCH.

WALES, PRINCE OF, a British title borne by the eldest son of the British monarch. It was first conferred by Edward I on his son, at the time of his conquest of the principality of Wales. Edward III was never Prince of Wales, but the title has been conferred on all the male heirs apparent to the English throne from the time of Edward the Black Prince, son of Edward III. The title is not hereditary, but is purely honorary; it does not pass to the holder automatically, but must be conferred with appropriate ceremony. It implies no power or authority, and the accompanying income is voted by Parliament.

As heir to the crown of Scotland, the Prince of Wales bears the titles of *Prince and High Steward of Scotland, Duke of Rothesay, Earl of Carrick, Baron of Renfrew, and Lord of the Isles*.

The title was bestowed on the present Edward VIII in June, 1910, three months after his father, George V, ascended the throne. Unless Edward VIII marries and is given a son, there will be no Prince of Wales during his reign.

WALHALLA, *wah'hal'a*, or **TEMPLE OF FAME**, a magnificent marble palace erected in 1830, near Ratisbon, Bavaria, by Ludwig I. The building, 116 by 245 feet in size, is in a style similar to Greek Doric. The pediments and frieze contain sculptures representing scenes from the early history of the Teutonic peoples, and mounds are busts of noted Germans. The building is named for Walhalla, the mythological hall of the Norse deities.

WALKER, FRANCIS AMASA (1840-1897), an American economist and statesman, born at Boston, Mass., the son of Amasa Walker. He graduated at Amherst College and after-

ward studied law. He served in the Union army in the Civil War and was made brigadier general for gallantry at Chancellorsville, where he was wounded. From 1866 to 1867 he taught Latin and Greek at Williston Seminary, and in 1869 he was appointed chief of the bureau of statistics at Washington. As supervisor of the census of 1870, as United States Indian Commissioner in 1872 and (from 1873 to 1881) as professor of political economy in the Sheffield Scientific School of Yale College, he rendered distinguished service. In 1881 he became president of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. He published many works, including volumes on the *Indian Question*, *Political Economy*, *The Wages Question*, *Money*, *International Bimetallism* and *The Making of the Nation*.

WALKER, WILLIAM (1824-1860), an American adventurer, notorious as a leader of several filibustering expeditions. He was born at Nashville, Tenn., and was graduated at the University of Nashville. After a course in law he was admitted to the bar, and later he studied medicine at the universities of Edinburgh and Heidelberg. On his return to America he engaged in journalism.

In the summer of 1853 Walker organized an expedition to conquer the state of Sonora, Mex. Forced to flee from Mexico on account of a lack of provisions and ammunition, he was arrested by United States authorities at San Diego, and was tried for violating neutrality, but was acquitted. He then conducted expeditions in Nicaragua and Costa Rica, and each time was driven out. After several attempts to conquer Honduras, he was compelled to surrender to the Honduran government, was condemned by court-martial and executed. See FILIBUSTER.

WALKERVILLE, ONT., on the Canadian National, the Wabash, the Michigan Central and the Pere Marquette railways, one and one-half miles from Windsor, and directly across the river from Detroit. Steamship lines run to Fort William, Port Arthur, Montreal and intermediate points. The industries of the town are supplied by Niagara electric power; there are varnish and paint factories, wire fence works, bridge works, tobacco, clothing and chemical works, and manufacturers of automobile bodies and trimmings, furnaces, castings and marine engines. Population, 1931, 10,105.

WALKING STICK, a name applied to a group of curiously-shaped insects, which closely resemble a small branch with twigs. In the southeastern part of the United States is found a typical species. The individuals have long, slender bodies and long, thin legs. They are green in summer, but turn brown in autumn, thus protected from detection as they escape all but the closest scrutiny. The local names are *devil's horse* and *male killer*. See LEAF INSECTS, PROSCRIBED COLORATION.

WALLACE, ALFRED RUSSEL (1822-1913), an English naturalist, born at Usk, Monmouthshire, and educated at Hertford Grammar School. He

spent many years in traveling, especially in South America and the Asiatic islands, and the valuable material collected in these scientific explorations he embodied in *Travels on the Amazon and Rio Negro*, *The Malay Archipelago*,



ALFRED RUSSEL
WALLACE

Tropical Nature and *The Geographical Distribution of Animals*. His observation of animal life and his philosophical nature led him to investigations which resulted in the formulation of a theory of natural selection and evolutionary development. Before Darwin gave his famous work to the world Wallace had published his *Speculations on the Origin of Species*. His share in establishing the theory of evolution has been acknowledged by Darwin. But while Darwin, in his later editions of the *Origin of Species*, somewhat modified his original conclusions, Wallace, in a late work, *Darwinism, an Exposition of the Theory of Natural Selection, with Some of its Applications*, strongly insists upon the complete controlling power of these primary laws and conditions. Moreover, he differs from Darwin on the subject of the intellectual, moral and spiritual nature of man. He contends that the higher faculties have been developed, not under the law of natural selection, but under a higher law, which has come in imperceptibly, and he maintains that the Darwinian theory, instead of opposing, "lends a decided support to a belief in the spiritual nature of man." He claimed to be a true Darwinian.

WALLACE, EDGAR (1875-1932), an English newspaper man and novelist who issued his books with almost incredible rapidity. He was a war correspondent and special writer for London papers before turning exclusively to the more formal literary field. His novels, most of them mystery stories, were often written at the rate of one in ten days or two weeks, and in all they totalled more than 160. Though showing evidence of hurried composition, they found an immense sale in all English-speaking countries. Wallace was engaged to write for American moving-picture producers in 1931, in Hollywood, Calif., while engaged on scenarios, he died in the following year.

WALLACE, Lewis (1827-1905), an American soldier and novelist, generally known as Lew Wallace. He was born in Brooksville, Ind., received a common school education and began the study of law, which he practised at intervals in Crawfordsville, Ind. He took part in the Mexican War, with rank of lieutenant, and was a member of the Indiana state legislature in 1848. At the outbreak of the Civil War he entered the service as colonel of an Indiana regiment, was appointed brigadier-general in 1861 and was made major-general for distinguished services at Fort Donelson in 1862. He was removed from command by Halleck, but was reinstated by Grant. He was sent to Mexico on secret diplomatic service in 1866, was elected governor of New Mexico in 1878 and was made minister to Turkey in 1881. His best-known works are *Ben Hur*, *The Fair God*, *The Prince of India* and *The Boyhood of Christ*.

WALLACE, WILLIAM, Sir (about 1272-1305), the first of the great Scottish patriots, a man of herculean proportions and strength and possessing in a high degree those qualities of leadership which made his name famous. The king of England deposed the Scottish king in 1296 and placed over Scotland a guard of English soldiers. Wallace one day quarreled with and killed one of these soldiers, and escaped. He gathered a band of Highlanders and began a guerrilla warfare on the English.

After collecting a considerable force, he was besieging the castle of Dundee when he heard that Surrey and Cressingham were advancing upon Stirling with a large army. He met them in the vicinity of that town and gained a complete victory (1297). After

this Wallace gained the title of guardian of the kingdom and conducted a series of organized raids into England. In 1298 Edward I entered Scotland, and Wallace retired before him, wasting the country, but he was at length overtaken at Falkirk and was compelled to fight, after a gallant resistance, he was defeated. He succeeded in escaping, and little is known of his movements thenceforth. He was excluded from the peace granted by Edward to the Scots in 1304, and when he fell into the hands of the English he was conveyed to London and there executed as a traitor, though it was admitted that he had never sworn fealty to England.

WALLA WALLA, wô'lâ wô'lâ, WASH., commercial center of the southeastern part of the state, county seat of Walla Walla County, situated 200 miles southwest of Spokane on the Walla Walla River, and the Northern Pacific and Union Pacific railroads. There is an airport. It is thirty miles east of the navigable Columbia River, and a hard-surfaced road has been constructed from Walla Walla to Wallula, the nearest port, to connect with boat lines. Walla Walla is beautifully located in the midst of a fertile valley which produces 5,000,000 bushels of wheat annually, besides extensive fruit, vegetables, live stock and dairy and poultry products.

Whitman College, located here, has been established eighty years and is one of the best known institutions of higher education in the Northwest. Another well-known school is Walla Walla College. The city has a state armory, the state prison, and a veterans' hospital.

Walla Walla, a term which means *rushing water*, grew up about a military post, established in 1856, and was at first known as Steptoe City. In 1868 it was chartered under the present name. The commission form of government is in operation. Population, 1920, 15,503; in 1930, 15,976.

WALLENSTEIN, wôl'èn stéen, or WALDSTEIN, ALBRECHT EUGENIUS WERNER VON, Duke of Friedland, Sagan and Mecklenburg (1583-1634), a famous leader in the Thirty Years' War, born at Hermann, in Bohemia, of poor but noble parentage. He was educated in a Jesuit College and at the universities of Padua, Altdorf and Bologna. Through a wealthy marriage he became prominent in affairs in Bohemia. For

military service against Venice in 1617 he was made a count and commissioned a colonel. He took service in the Austrian army in the struggle against the Turks, and when the Thirty Years' War broke out in Bohemia (1618), he joined the imperial forces against his native country.

In September, 1630, owing to the jealousies of the nobles and the treachery of his followers, he was deprived of all command and returned to his duchy of Friedland, until the emperor was compelled to seek his aid against Gustavus Adolphus. Wallenstein then obtained almost absolute power, and his behavior thenceforth leaves no doubt that the emperor's interests were second to his own, and that he would not have hesitated to join the emperor's enemies, to secure his own independence and the crown of Bohemia. After some partial successes he encountered the king of Sweden at Lützen in 1632, and in the battle which took place Wallenstein was defeated and Gustavus was killed. Wallenstein had unsuccessfully treated on his own account with the Swedish king, and he now secretly reopened negotiations with France and the German princes, occasionally taking the field to display his military power. The court at Vienna was well aware of his double dealing, but the emperor was not strong enough to remove him, and he therefore had him assassinated. See THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

WALLFLOWER, a shrubby herb, belonging to the mustard family, native to Southern Europe, so called because it is often found growing among the stones of fallen walls. It thrives in dry soil and gravel and grows well on stony cliffs. The flowers in the wild state are invariably yellow; under cultivation they exhibit a variety of colors. A red specimen is known as bleeding heart. Heartsease and gillyflower are other names by which the plants are known. The fragrant, velvety flowers are much admired, and have gained for the plant a place in Northern hothouses.

WALL OF CHINA, THE GREAT See GREAT WALL OF CHINA

WALLOONS, *wel'loons'*, a Celtic race inhabiting Southern Belgium. They are the descendants of the ancient Belgae and resemble the French more than they do the Germans, being short and mostly of dark complexion. Their language, also called Walloon, is a French dialect, retaining numerous

Gallo words, but it varies somewhat in the different provinces. There are about 2,750,000 Walloons now in Belgium.

WALL PAPER, paper used for decorating the walls and ceilings of rooms. It was invented by the Chinese about 2,000 years ago, but was unknown elsewhere until about the year 1850, when importations from China reached Europe. The first factory for its manufacture in Europe was built in France in 1750. The French still call it *paper peint*, because for many years in that country it was hand-painted. It came into quick popularity in Europe as a substitute for the expensive tapestries, brocades, and velvets that were the wall adornments of the wealthy. Today more wall paper is made in the United States than in any other country, its production there reaching 325,000,000 rolls a year, enough to put a belt almost sixty times around the world. European manufacturers still adhere quite largely in choice of patterns to copies of tapestries and historic and mythological designs, but American stylists specialize in new designs; one American manufacturer produces about 3,000 different styles of prints. The design in the sheet, which is printed on presses resembling printing presses, is repeated at intervals, and when the paper-hanger puts it on the wall he is careful to match the pattern.

WALL STREET, the center of financial operations in the United States, so called from the street in lower New York City, upon which are located the New York Stock Exchange, the Consolidated Exchange and numerous banking institutions that figure largely in the money market. The street itself extends from Broadway to East River, following the line of the old city wall built by Governor Peter Stuyvesant in 1653 to protect the town from possible attacks by the Indians. This wall, repaired and replaced from time to time, formed for fifty years the northern boundary of the future metropolis of the Western world.

WALNUT, *wal'nut*, a genus including about twelve species of beautiful trees, mostly natives of North America and Asia. The three best-known species in America are the English, or Persian, walnut, the black walnut and the white walnut, or butternut.

The English, or Persian, walnut is a native of Persia and the Himalaya region, and is extensively cultivated on the California coast and in Southern Europe. It is a handsome

tree, attaining a height of from sixty to ninety feet. It yields a sweet sap, somewhat like that of the sugar maple. The nut, which grows in a thin, wrinkled, two-valved shell, has a high food value, being a greater heat producer than almost any kind of meat. The unripe nuts are much used for making pickles and ketchups. The wood called Creasman walnut, is valuable for cabinet work. It has been much used for interior finishing and for furniture, but is becoming rare. A beautiful brown dye obtained from the bark and the husks of the nuts has been much employed in staining lighter woods.

The nuts, which are encased in a woody shell, are delectably flavored, but are of comparatively little commercial importance because the oil in them soon becomes rancid.

WALPOLE, *waw'pōlē*, HORACE, Sir, fourth Earl of Orford (1717-1797), an English man of letters, the son of Sir Robert Walpole. He received his education at Cambridge, and following his graduation spent several years in travel. In 1741 he entered Parliament. His first publication was *A Catalogue of Royal and Noble Authors*, which was followed in 1764 by *The Castle of Otranto*, a romance abounding in mystery, which was at the time of its publication very popular. Walpole is, however, chiefly remembered for his *Letters*, which give entertaining pictures of the society of his day. While in general these pictures are true to life, they contain many inaccuracies.

WALPOLE, HUGH (1884-), an English novelist, biographer, and lecturer, born in New Zealand and educated at Cambridge University. When he turned to literature, his first novel, *The Wooden Horse*, was not well received. Undaunted, he followed this effort with others which won him great favor, and brought rare perfection of style. Probably his most famous works are the series of *Rogue Herries* novels. In addition to more than a dozen books of fiction, he wrote several volumes for children, with *Jeremy* as the leading character in each, and biographies of Joseph Conrad and Anthony Trollope. In Canada and the United States he made many appearances on the lecture platform.

WALPOLE, ROBERT, Sir, first Earl of Orford (1676-1745), an English statesman. He was educated at Eton and at King's College, Cambridge, succeeded to his father's estate in 1700 and entered Parliament as

member for Castle Rising. In 1702 he was elected for King's Lynn, became an active member of the Whig party and soon distinguished himself by his business capacity and by his ease in debate. He was successively Secretary of War, paymaster of the forces and First Lord of the Treasury, Chancellor of the Exchequer and Prime Minister. This latter office he held for over twenty-one years, and, during his long administration the Hanoverian succession became firmly established, owing largely to his prudence and political acuteness.



THE WALRUS

WALRUS, *waw'rus*, a marine flesh-eating mammal, related to the seal, and inhabiting the colder climates. It is larger and heavier than the seal, and when full-grown will measure twelve feet in length, and weigh about 2,000 pounds. When young, it is covered with thick, dull brown fur, but as it gets older this falls out, and when full-grown the walrus has practically no fur or hair on his wrinkled skin. The most characteristic feature of the walrus family is the pair of large pointed tusks (canine teeth) which project downward from the upper jaw. These tusks are of solid ivory, and are often from 20 to 30 inches in length. They are used both as tools and as weapons,—to dig up clams and other food, to climb on ice and rocks, and to defend themselves from foes, especially from the polar bear, their chief enemy. Two species are found, one in the Atlantic—in Greenland and Labrador, one in the Pacific—in the islands of Behring Sea, but their numbers are diminishing rapidly. They are hunted for their hides and oil, and for ivory, and by the natives on the Arctic coasts for food. They are either killed with the rifle or taken with harpoons.

WALTHAM, *wol'tham*, Mass., a city in Middlesex County, ten miles west of Boston, on the Charles River. It manufactures more watches than any other city in Massachusetts; its watch factories are among the

largest in the world. There are also large cotton mills, shoe factories, paper-bag mills, machine shops and foundries. It has a state armory and a public library. It was originally a part of Watertown, but was made a separate town in 1788. The mayor-council form of government is in operation. Population, 1920, 80,881; in 1930, 89,247.

WALTON, *waw'ton*, ISAAC (1593-1683), the author of the famous *Compleat Angler*, a treatise on fishing. For a number of years he was in business in London, as a linen draper according to some accounts, as an ironmonger according to others. He retired at the age of fifty and devoted his remaining forty years to a life of cultured ease and pleasure. His first edition of *The Compleat Angler* appeared in 1658. It is to his exquisite delineations of rural scenery, the ease and unaffected humor of his dialogue and the delightful simplicity of his style that *The Compleat Angler* owes its charm.

WALTZ, *wawtz*, a dance of Bohemian origin, executed with a rapid whirling motion, the gentleman having his arm round his partner's waist. The music is written in triple time and consists of phrases of eight or sixteen bars. Several of these phrases are now usually united, to prevent monotony. Johann Strauss and his son of the same name are the most noted composers of waltzes. The *vals à deux temps* is a form of waltz in which two steps are made to each bar of three beats. Classical waltzes are musical compositions in waltz form, not intended for dance tunes. Of this style the composer Chopin is the greatest master.

WAMPANOAG, *wom pa no'ag*, a tribe of Algonquian Indians who once occupied the lands east of Narragansett Bay, as far north as Massachusetts. Their number was reduced from 30,000 to barely 1,000 by a fearful epidemic, and a subsequent war with the whites resulted in their complete destruction. Massasoit and his son Philip were famous men of the tribe. See MASSASOIT, KING PHILIP.

WAMPUM, *wom'pum*, white and purple shell beads used for ornament and circulated in colonial days as money among Indian tribes east of the Mississippi. Because of the fixed value given to wampum strings, they came to be accepted by the New England colonists in exchange for their own coins. In some localities six wampum beads

equaled a penny. It was the custom of the Indians to weave wampum beads into belts, in such a manner that the figures formed permanent records. Few transactions of any sort were considered complete without the passing of the belts, and wampum records were invariably used in the ratification of treaties. Many wampum belts of historic importance are preserved in the state archives at Albany, New York.

WANAMAKER, *wahn'a me ker*, JOHN (1838-1922), an American merchant, capitalist and philanthropist. He was born in Philadelphia, Pa., and there received a common school education and began his business career as errand boy in a book store, later he was a salesman, and in 1861 he established a clothing house, which he enlarged into a general department store in 1876. In 1896 he opened a branch in New York City.

He helped to organize the Christian Commission, which assisted the soldiers during the Civil War, was chairman of several relief committees, and was prominent in the management of the Centennial Exposition. Wanamaker was appointed Postmaster-General in 1889 and performed his duties with energy and administrative ability. He also took great interest in religious work and actively supported the Young Men's Christian Association. As one of the founders of the Presbyterian Hospital and Bethany Dispensary, as organist and president of the First Penny Savings Bank and as a donor to numerous charities he was one of the most influential men of his time.

WANDERING JEW. A legend, well known in almost all parts of the Christian world, says that while Christ was on his way to Calvary, bearing his cross, he was mocked by a Jew, who told him not to rest, but to hurry on with his burden. In reply, Christ said, "I go, but thou shalt tarry till I come." In consequence, the man has continued since to wander about the earth. He passes through his lifetime like any ordinary man, till he reaches one hundred years, and then he suffers a terrible sickness, after which he comes forth again young. This legend has been the subject of many literary works in prose, poetry and the drama. The most notable novel is *The Wandering Jew* by Eugene Sue.

WANDERING JEW, a creeping plant with glossy leaves having a silvery sheen and often a purplish cast. It grows in almost

any soil, and even in water, and the persistency with which it lives and its manner of growth are responsible for the name. The plant grows and spreads rapidly and is used to advantage in hanging baskets and along the sides of window boxes. In the warmer of the temperate climates the plants live out of doors and often attain a length of several yards.

WAPITI. See Elk.

WAR, *war*, a contest between nations or states (international war), or between parties in the same state (civil war), carried on by force of arms. It usually arises in the first case from disputes about territorial possessions and frontiers, unjust dealings with the subjects of one state by another, economic competition and oppression, questions of race and sentiment, jealousy of military prestige or mere lust of conquest. Nearly all civil wars are due to the claims of rival contenders for supreme power in the state, or to attempts to establish some important point connected with civil, religious or political liberty. In all cases the aim of each contending party is to overthrow or weaken the enemy, by the defeat or dispersion of his army or navy, by the occupation of important parts of his country, or by the ruin of his commerce, thus cutting off his resources of recuperation. In practically every instance, propaganda, much of it patently false, fans the fever for conflict.

When war is carried into the territory of a hitherto friendly power, it is called an *aggressive*, or *offensive*, war; and when carried on to resist such aggression, it is called *defensive*. Previous to the outbreak of hostilities between states, the power taking the initiatory step may issue a *declaration of war*, which now usually takes the form of an explanatory manifesto, addressed to neutral governments (see WAR, DECLARATION OF).

During the progress of the struggle, certain laws, usages or rights of war have come to be generally recognized, such laws permitting the destruction or capture of armed enemies, the destruction of property likely to be serviceable to them, the stoppage of their channels of traffic and the appropriation of everything in an enemy's country necessary for the support and subsistence of the invading army. On the other hand, though an enemy may be starved into surrender, wounding, except in battle, mutilation and all cruel and wanton devastation

are contrary to the rules of war, as are also bombarding an unprotected town, the use of poison and the employment of torture to extort information from an enemy. Works of art and the industries of peace are usually considered as exempt from destruction. The World War, however, showed that in actual conflict all these rules may be disregarded by a wanton adversary. A remorseless and cruel nation breaks every humane rule, and its opponents may retort with "reprisals." The supreme problem before civilization at the present time is not the mitigation, but the abolition of war.

When two nations are at war and it becomes necessary for them to communicate, it is customary to request the services of the embassies of some neutral powers, and the belligerents themselves do not meet until preliminary arrangements have been made by the neutrals, as, for instance, in the Russo-Japanese War, negotiations were carried on by the government of the United States. While terms of peace are being considered, or when for any reason the belligerents wish to meet, an *armistice*, or *truce*, is declared, during which there is a cessation of hostilities.

If one nation completely conquers another, the war ceases, though many matters must subsequently be settled by a *treaty* or by *grant*. The World War peace treaty (1919) was the latest of the many notable agreements that have followed wars since civilization began. While as a whole treaties are based on the assumption that there will always be other wars, some of their provisions usually recognize the possibility of preventing war.

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WAR, DECLARATION OF, a formal announcement by one nation of its intention to begin hostilities against another, or a statement recognizing the existence of a state of war between the two nations. Under modern conditions, with such facilities for rapid communication as the telephone, the wireless telegraph, the ocean cable, etc., actual warfare is preceded by negotiations of longer or shorter duration. It sometimes happens that hostilities begin without a formal declaration, as in case of the Russo-Japanese War and Italy's assault on Etnopua. A common procedure is for one nation to send

an ultimatum to the other, setting a definite time for a reply. In 1914, for example, Great Britain sent an ultimatum to Germany on August 4, demanding a reply to its request that Belgian neutrality be respected, and requiring an answer by midnight of the same day. Germany's failure to reply was followed by a war declaration on the part of Great Britain. The war resolution by which the United States entered the World War was a statement that war existed between the two countries because of illegal acts on the part of Germany. See WAR, WORLD WAR.

WAR, DEPARTMENT OF, that one of the executive departments of a government which has to do primarily with military affairs. The chief of the department in the United States is the Secretary of War, who is a member of the President's Cabinet. He carries out the orders of the President, who is commander in chief of the army. The War Department consists of a number of different bureaus, over the chiefs of which the Secretary has general control. The affairs of the War Department, however, are not confined strictly to military matters, for it exercises control over pensions, sea coast forts, river and harbor improvements, the military academy and the government of island possessions which require military supervision. The principal bureau chiefs are the adjutant-general, the inspector-general, the judge-advocate-general, the quartermaster-general, the commissary-general, the sergeant-major, the paymaster-general and the chiefs of ordnance, signal office, engineers and pensions. The department was created by act of Congress in 1789.

WARTBLIERS, a family of tiny, insect-eating birds, found throughout the western continent, about seventy species of which reach the United States. Their migration northward is made with great regularity, and in May and early June they are commonly observed everywhere in the Northern states. In nesting, however, most species seek the deep woods, some penetrating as far northward as the Hudson Bay and Yukon regions. Nearly all spend the winter in the tropics.

Some of the better known species of warblers are the yellow warbler, or summer yellow bird, which remains about Northern homes and parks throughout the summer, the black and white warbler, which creeps about the branches of trees in early spring,

the myrtle warbler, marked with four yellow patches on head, rump and wing, the black-throated green and the black-throated blue warblers, the chat, the American redstart and the oven bird. Some warblers have fine singing voices, but the greater number have only weak, lisping notes. Their nests are usually cup-shaped, woven of twigs and grasses and placed in trees or bushes. The eggs are from three to five in number.

WARD, a minor who has been placed under a guardian appointed by the courts and who becomes legally responsible for the protection of his rights. The child must obey his guardian, he may not marry without his consent and may not bring suit against him, though in cases of unjust treatment he may file a complaint with the court. In most cases wardship ceases with marriage and always when the ward becomes of legal age. See GUARDIAN.

WARD See MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT.

WAED, ARTEMUS See BROWNE, CHARLES FARRAR.

WAED, ELIZABETH STUART PHELPS (1844-1911), an American author and philanthropist, born at Andover, Mass. Besides lecturing and engaging in work for the advancement of women and for social reforms, she also wrote a number of stories, including *The Gates Ajar* (1868), which passed through twenty editions in the year of its publication, *Beyond the Gates*, *The Gates Between*, *Hedged In*, *The Silent Partner*, *The Story of Avis*, *A Singular Life* and, in conjunction with her husband, the Rev. Herchert D. Ward, *Comes Forth* and *The Master of the Magicians*.

WARD, MRS HUMPHRY (1851-1920), one of the foremost woman novelists of twentieth-century England. She was born in Tasmania and was reared and educated in England. In 1872 she married Thomas Humphry Ward, a journalist. Matthew Arnold was her uncle.

After writing much for periodicals and publishing two works of fiction, which were not especially noteworthy, she brought out in 1888 *Robert Elsmere*, a novel which became immensely popular and which won the favorable notice



MRS HUMPHRY
WARD

of critics. Then followed *The History of David Grove, Marcella, The Story of Bessie Costrell, Sir George Tressady, Helbeck of Bannisdale, Eleanor, Lady Rose's Daughter*, *The Marriage of William Ashe, The Case of Richard Meynell, Eltham House, Missing, Elisabeth's Campaign and Helena* (1920). The principal criticism passed on Mrs. Ward's novels, especially on her earlier ones, is that the purpose is made too prominent and that in all there is too great similarity of leading characters. But her characters are clearly drawn, her literary execution is excellent and her topics are always vital and timely.

WARD, JOHN QUINCY ADAMS (1830-1910), one of the foremost American sculptors of his day, was born at Urbana, Ohio. Before the Civil War he established himself in New York, and became known for his portrait busts of notable people. His statuette *The Freedmen*, made in 1865, was so popular that thousands of copies were sold, his *Indian Hunter*, which also makes a strong popular appeal, was the first piece of statuary erected in Central Park, New York City. *The Good Samaritan*, a group commemorating the discovery of the efficacy of ether as an anesthetic, is in Boston. Ward's bronze bust of Shakespeare, a seated figure of Horace Greeley and statues of George Washington and Thomas Jefferson are among his finest portrait statuary. Ward was identified with the leading art organizations of his time and labored unremittingly to elevate national ideals in the field of art endeavor.

WARFIELD, DAVID (1866-), an American actor who has achieved the highest success in several character portrayals. He was born at San Francisco and in that city began his stage career at a local theater at the age of twenty-two. He went to New York in 1890, in the ten years following he was connected with the Casino Theater and with Weber and Fields' Music Hall. Later attracting the attention of David Belasco, Warfield was starred in *The Auctioneer*, one of his greatest successes. He was equally successful in *The Music Master*, and thus placed him in the front rank of American actors. His later performances have been in the leading role of *The Return of Peter Grimm* and as "Van der Decken" in the play of the same name, based on the legend of *The Flying Dutchman*. Warfield's impersonation of an eccentric but kindly old

gentleman, pathetic and courageous in misfortune, has never been excelled by any American actor.

WARNER, CHARLES DUDLEY (1829-1900), an American editor and critic, born at Plainfield, Mass. He received his degree at Hamilton College in 1852, was admitted to the bar and for a time practiced law in Chicago. Entering journalism, he became, in 1860, editor of the *Hartford Press* and later of the *Courant*. As correspondent of American papers he made an extensive tour of Europe, and on his return, in 1884, he became one of the editors of *Harper's Magazine*, to which he contributed until his death. The first book by which he attained prominence was *My Summer in a Garden*, a volume of sketches, which was followed by *Backlog Studies, Being a Boy and As We Were Saying*. Among his other works are *The Gilded Age*, a drama in which he collaborated with Samuel L. Clemens, and *A Little Journey in the World*, a novel with a moral purpose. He edited the "American Men of Letters" series and *A Library of the World's Best Literature*.

WARNER, SETH (1743-1784), an American soldier, one of the leaders of the Green Mountain Boys, who opposed New York's claim to the New Hampshire grants. He was elected lieutenant-colonel of the Green Mountain Boys in 1775, and the following year was appointed colonel of the continental regiment. He received a colonel's commission for the part he took in the capture of Crown Point. He was in command at the Battle of Hubbardton and rendered efficient service in the Battle of Bennington. In 1782 he retired on account of ill health.

WAR OF 1812, the name given to the struggle between the United States and Great Britain in the years 1812-1814. The general cause of the war was the attitude of Great Britain in relation to American shipping. Its claims to the right to board and search American vessels for the purpose of impressing British citizens, found in their crews, into the British service, its decrees and orders to the detriment of American commerce, its disregard of American protests, which had been a cause for grievance to the Americans for many years, at last compelled them to attempt to secure reparation by force. The same haughty actions regarding American commerce had been taken by France, and it was long a question as to which of the

two powers the United States would fight first, but the proximity of Canada, which seemed to offer an attractive field for conquest, and the old ill-feeling toward England, resulting from the Revolution, finally caused the declaration of war against Great Britain, on June 18, 1812. Five days later the British government withdrew the "Orders in Council," which had been probably the most objectionable features of the British policy, since they established a paper blockade of European ports and practically excluded American commerce from the seas.

At the outset the land forces of the United States made little headway. Great Britain, with her vastly superior resources, was prepared for war, having been at war with France for many years, while the United States government had shown a shameful lack of appreciation of the dangers attending the new republic and had allowed the navy and war departments to deteriorate almost out of existence. The first military movement was that of General Hull, who invaded Canada with two thousand men, but soon retreated before an inferior force under General Brock and surrendered at Detroit, August 16. In October of the same year, General Van Rensselaer made another invasion of Canada near Niagara Falls, and after the Battle of Queenstown, in which the British general, Brock, was mortally wounded, the Americans were again driven back with great loss. Meantime, on the sea the United States vessels had some success. The *Constitution* had captured the British frigate *Guerriere* (August 19). The *Wasp*, after a sharp battle, took the *Frolic*. The United States captured the *Macedonian*, and in December the *Constitution* compelled the surrender of the frigate *Jessie*.

Of the American navy it can be said that at the beginning of the war there were practically no war vessels owned by the government. So badly in need of a naval arm was the country that privateers (which see) were heeded. A few naval vessels were assembled, these in 1812 and 1813 gave so good an account of themselves in action that the

naval history of the war was remarkable. American valor on the sea made forever memorable such names as the *Constitution* ("Old Ironsides"), the *Wasp* and others scarcely less notable.

In the spring of 1813 General Dearborn, who had been placed at the head of affairs in the Northwest, invaded Canada for the third time, with an army of 1,700 men, and captured York (Toronto). He was relieved by Generals Wilkinson and Hampton, who made an attempt to take Montreal, but without success. In May an advance of the British into New York State was repulsed at Sackett's Harbor, and in September Commodore Perry fought the famous Battle of Lake Erie, by which he captured the most important British fleet upon the Great Lakes. This victory enabled General Harrison to invade Canada. There he defeated General Proctor, in the Battle of the Thames.

In 1814 General Jacob Brown again invaded Canada, captured the British Fort Erie and defeated the force under General Riall at Clippewa. Then followed the Battle of Lundy's Lane and the withdrawal of the Americans to Fort Erie, where they were



MAP OF MAIN OPERATIONS

besieged. In the following September, General Provoost led 14,000 men in an invasion of New York, by way of Lake Champlain. The fleet which he had got together was defeated near Plattsburgh by an American fleet under Commodore McDonough, while the land force was also repulsed. At about the same time, the British fleet ascended Chesapeake Bay, defeated the hastily sum-

mous American militia at Bladensburg, entered Washington and sacked the government buildings, in retaliation for the sack of York at its capture.

Meanwhile, General Andrew Jackson had been fighting the Creek Indians in the extreme South and had gathered together an army of Kentucky and Tennessee frontiersmen. In January, 1815 this force was confronted by an army sent direct from England, under General Pakenham, and consisting of the veterans of Wellington's campaign against Napoleon. The result was the famous Battle of New Orleans.

On the sea the Americans continued to gain the upper hand, though the *Chesapeake* was captured by the *Shannon*, and other small American vessels were taken. Probably the most memorable event upon the sea during this period was the famous cruise of the American frigate *Essex*, which, after a long and brilliant career against British merchantmen, was compelled to surrender to the *Phoebe* and the *Cerberus* in the Pacific Ocean, March 28, 1814. The very month in which the treaty of peace was signed, December, 1814, the Federalists of New England declared their opposition to the war. The Treaty of Ghent provided for the restoration of all lands captured by either side and for a commission to determine the boundary between the United States and Canada. It did not provide for the withdrawal of the British claims regarding right of search, the paper blockade and the laws of neutrality. These practices had already been discontinued by the British, on demand of their own merchants, and were never revived.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

Blockade	New Orleans, Battle
Brock, Sir Isaac	Perry, Oliver H.
Champlain, Lake	Queenston Heights,
Constitution (ship)	Battle of
Continental System	Raisin River, Massa-
Embargo	cure of
Erie, Lake, Battle of	Star-Spangled Ban-
Ghent, Treaty of	ner
Hartford Convention	Thames River, Bat-
Hull, William	tle of the
Jackson, Andrew	Tippencee, Battle of
Lawrence, James	Lundy's Lane, Battle
Lundy's Lane, Battle	United States (his-
Milan Decree	tory)

WARRANT, a writ issued by any qualified court officer directing a constable or sheriff to arrest the person named therein and bring him before the official issuing the warrant. A warrant is usually issued upon the oath of a complaining witness as to the guilt of the person concerned. Ar-

rests without a warrant are illegal, except in time of public danger, or when an overt act is witnessed by a peace officer.

WARREN, JOSEPH (1741-1775), an American patriot, born at Roxbury Mass. He was graduated from Harvard College and became a physician at Boston and a leading figure in Massachusetts political movements, contributing with voice and pen to the cause of patriotism. He drew up the "Suffolk Resolves," the most radical expression of the American position with respect to British oppression, and in the following year, 1775, was elected president of the provincial congress of Massachusetts. Although the rank of major-general of Massachusetts forces had been conferred on him, and he was offered chief command at Bunker Hill, he took his place as a volunteer and was killed in the fight of June 17. A monument in his memory erected in 1794, on the spot where he fell, was later replaced by the Bunker Hill Monument (which see).

WARREN, OHIO, the county seat of Trumbull County, fifty-two miles southeast of Cleveland, on the Erie, the Baltimore & Ohio and the Pennsylvania railroads. It is said to be the second city in the United States in the manufacture of electric lamps. Other manufactures are refrigerators, enamel ware, steel, road building machinery, electric motors, stov ranges, shovels, bath tubs, and boilers. It has a federal building, a public library and a hospital. The town was first settled in 1802 and was incorporated in 1834. Population, 1920, 27,050; in 1930, 41,062. There is an airport.

WARREN, PA., the county seat of Warren County, sixty-six miles southeast of Erie, on the Allegheny River and on the Pennsylvania and the New York Central railroads. The city has Warren Conservatory of Music, a business college, a public library, and six parks. There are boiler and machine shops and furniture factories, and oil is refined. The state hospital for the insane is here. Warren was settled in 1780, and was incorporated as a borough in 1832. Population, 1920, 14,272; in 1930, 14,868.

WARSAW, POLAND, capital and largest city of the republic, is situated on the left bank of the Vistula, 625 miles south of Petrograd and 320 miles east of Berlin. The city is built upon a hill, which slopes toward the river, and is connected with its suburb, Praga, by an iron bridge. The old

part of the town is characterized by narrow winding streets and quaint buildings, erected during the Middle Ages. It is enclosed by a wall, which is entered through a number of gates. Around this part of the town are the suburbs, which are of a more modern structure. In Castle Square stands the castle of the old Polish kings. The Roman Catholic Cathedral of Saint John, dating from the thirteenth century; the Church of the Holy Virgin, dating from the fifteenth century, and the Church of Saint Anne, of about the same date, are also of interest. The city contains a number of public monuments, among them an obelisk erected to the memory of the Polish generals who fell in 1830. The educational institutions include a university, an observatory, a polytechnic institute, a conservatory of music and a museum of fine arts.

Warsaw is an important industrial center, and its leading manufactures include machinery, chemicals, food products, matches, spurs, tobacco, and boots and shoes. The city itself is not fortified, but protecting it are some of the greatest fortresses in the world. These, with the city itself, were taken by the Germans in 1915 during the World War. After the liberation of Poland at the close of the war, Warsaw became the capital of the newly-organized republic (see POLAND, WORLD WAR). Population, 1931, 1,173,211.

WARSHIP. See NAVY, SUBMARINE; TORPEDO BOAT.

WART, an excrescence of the skin caused by hardening of the papillae. Warts are usually the result of some form of irritation, and appear most commonly on the hands of children. They may disappear after a time, or may persist through life. There have been many superstitious beliefs as to methods of removing warts, but the only reliable way is that of having them cauterized by a physician, or treated with lactic acid or a similar chemical. Sebaceous warts result from a breaking down of the skin, favored by irritation or lack of cleanliness, and are usually found on the back, neck and arms.

WAFT HOG, a wild pig, native to Africa. It stands about three feet high, having rather long legs. The face is rendered extremely hideous by large tusks and wart-like protuberances under the eyes and at each side of the huge snout. The coarse hair, short on the rest of the body, is long on the

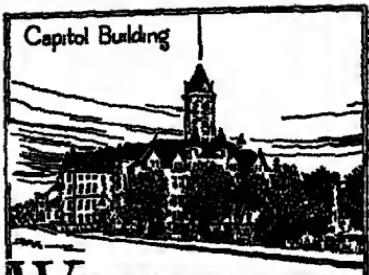
back and hangs in a mane on the neck. These hogs roam in small groups in search of food, and are destructive to crops. There are two principal species, one in Abyssinia and Somaliland, and the other in South Africa.

WAWICK, RICHARD NEVILLE, Earl of, called the "king-maker" (1428-1471), an English soldier and statesman. He was the son of the Earl of Salisbury and became Earl of Warwick after marrying the heiress of the Warwick title and estates. Taking the Yorkist side in the Wars of the Roses, he was the main instrument in placing Edward IV on the throne in 1461, in place of Henry VI, and he became the most powerful nobleman in the kingdom. He quarreled with Edward, however, on account of the latter's marriage, went over to Henry's side and was able to place him again on the throne, but was defeated and slain at the Battle of Barnet.

WASATCH, *was'atsh*, MOUNTAINS, a range belonging to the Rocky Mountain system. It extends from Southeastern Idaho to Southwestern Utah, forming the eastern boundary of the Great Basin in which lies the Great Salt Lake. The mountains rise abruptly from the plain and reach an average height of 10,000 feet. The highest peak, Mount Belknap, reaches 12,000 feet above sea level. The peaks, covered with perpetual snow, are the source of numerous streams, and the region is broken by canyons.

WASHBURN COLLEGE, a Congregational institution of higher learning, established in 1885 at Topeka, Kansas. There is a school of liberal arts and instruction is also given in engineering and law. There is also a preparatory school. The attendance is over 1,100; faculty, 75; library, 40,000 volumes.

WASHING MACHINE, a mechanism of varied types and sizes for washing clothes, fabrics, etc., in the home and public laundries. The clothes are placed in a waterproof metal cylinder and agitated by an inner device containing cleansing solutions. The direction of rotation is reversed automatically every few revolutions, thus displacing dirt by forcing soap and water through the clothes. Most machines are electrically equipped. Many have roller attachments for wringing and mauling. All have safety features, the moving parts being covered to avoid accidental catching of clothes. Another feature is an automatic timer to turn off current when washing has continued the desired time.



WAshington, a prosperous and progressive state of the American Union, situated in the extreme northwestern part of the country, south of the International boundary and on the Pacific coast. Its popular name, the Evergreen State, refers to its wealth of fir forests. About seventy per cent of the surface is forest-covered, and in the annual production of lumber Washington is the leading state in the Union. The rhododendron is its flower emblem.

Location and Area. The state is bounded on the north by the Canadian province of British Columbia, the forty-ninth parallel forming the line between the two divisions. Extending into the northwestern part of the state is the irregular, much-branching inlet, Puget Sound, which is connected with the open ocean by the straits of Juan de Fuca and Georgia. Between these straits lies the island of Vancouver, which is wholly Canadian territory, though it extends south of the international boundary. Washington touches the northern extension of Idaho on the east, and along most of its southern border it is separated from Oregon by the Columbia River.

With an area of 69,127 square miles, of which 2,291 square miles are water the state is the nineteenth in size, having but 293 square miles less than the state of Missouri. Washington is about two-thirds the size of Oregon, its southern neighbor, and if placed on the prairie to the north, would occupy less than one-fifth of that area.

People and Cities. In 1920 the population was 1,856,621. By the Federal census of 1930, it had grown to 1,563,396, with an average density of 23 4 persons to the square mile, ranking it thirteenth in population.

Of the foreign-born groups, who number in all about 244,000, the most prominent numerically are Canadians, Swedes, Ger-

mans, English and Irish. The state has twelve Indian reservations, with a total population of about 11,000. There are also large numbers of Japanese, Chinese and Negroes. Negroes numbered 6,840, Japanese, 17,800, and Chinese, 2,200, in 1930.

The largest religious bodies are the Roman Catholic, Methodist, Presbyterian, Lutheran, Baptist and Congregationalist denominations.

According to the Federal census for 1930, Washington has fifteen municipalities with populations exceeding 10,000. There are three large cities—Seattle (865,883), Spokane (115,514) and Tacoma (106,817). Other important cities are Everett, Bellingham, Walla Walla and Olympia, the capital.

Surface and Drainage. The Cascade Mountains cross the state from north to south about 120 miles east of the coast, and divide it into two unequal parts, Eastern Washington and Western Washington. These mountains form the chief physiographic feature of the state and have a mean elevation of about 8,000 feet. Their eastern slope rises gradually from the interior plateau, but the western slope is steep and broken. The range contains a number of lofty peaks whose summits are covered with perpetual snow. The most noted among these are Mount Rainier, 14,408 feet, now enclosed in a national park, Mount Adams, 12,307 feet, Mount Baker, 10,730 feet and Mount Saint Helens, 9,671 feet. Eastern Washington, which includes nearly two-thirds of the state, contains the Columbia River Basin, which is by far the largest natural division of surface within the state. Within this basin are the great irrigated and grain-growing districts and a number of fertile valleys famous for fruit products. In the southeastern part the Blue Mountains rise to an altitude of about 6,000 feet.

Western Washington is naturally divided into three physiographic regions—the Puget Sound Basin, including the territory between the Olympic and Cascade mountains, and surrounding the great inland sea, Puget Sound; the Olympic Peninsula, including that portion of the state containing the Olympic Mountains and the region extending from them to the Pacific; and the southwestern division, which occupies the region fronting on the Columbia River and Pacific Ocean and extending northward until it meets the Olympic Peninsula. The Olympics

Mountains are the northern extension of the Coast Range.

The eastern section of the state, or Eastern Washington, is drained entirely by the Columbia River and its tributaries. This river enters the state near the northeastern corner and flows south by west then westward in an irregular course, then southward and southeastward until it reaches the southern boundary, when it makes a sharp turn to the west and pursues its course to the Pacific. These changes in direction form what is known as the Great Bend in the Columbia River, and this is for a part of the way the western boundary of the plateau. The chief tributaries of the Columbia are Clark Fork, from Idaho, the Snake, which flows through the southeastern corner of the state, the Spokane, the Okanogan, the Methow, the Wenatchee and the Yakima. Western Washington is drained into Puget Sound and the Pacific. In this section all of the rivers are short and comparatively unimportant, the most important being the Cowich, flowing southward into the Columbia, the Chehalis, flowing directly into the Pacific, and the Skagit, which enters Puget Sound. The state contains a number of mountain lakes, the largest being Lake Chelan.

Climate. The Cascade Mountains divide the state into two climatic regions. Eastern Washington is characterized by hot summers, cold though not severe winters and light rainfall, the annual average being about sixteen inches. In many sections irrigation is necessary to successful agriculture. Except upon the high altitudes there are many hot days during the summer. During the winter there are heavy falls of snow, which are welcomed by the farmers, because as the snow on the lowlands melts, it is absorbed by the soil, and that upon the mountains during the summer feeds the streams which supply water for irrigation. The climate of Western Washington is mild and moist. The prevailing westerlies, blowing moisture-laden from the sea, strike the cool slopes of the mountains and have their moisture condensed. West of the Cascades the annual rainfall varies from twenty to 132 inches. The winters are mild and the summers are free from extreme heat.

Mineral Resources. There are extensive deposits of coal in the Puget Sound Basin, notably in King, Pierce, Lewis, Whatcom and Thurston counties, also in Kittitas county, west of the Cascade Range. About 1,625,000

tons of coal are mined annually. Both bituminous and lignite varieties are found. The coal deposits of Washington are the only ones of any great extent on the Pacific coast.

Venues of ore producing gold, silver, copper, lead, quicksilver and a number of rare metals occur throughout the mountainous regions. Gold and silver are mined in Whatcom, Skagit, Snohomish, King, Pierce, Lewis, Skamania, Cowich, Okanogan, Chelan, Kittitas, Yakima, Clallam, Ferry and Stevens counties. Iron ore, and marble, granite, quartz, serpentine, limestone and sandstone occur in large quantities. Beds of fire clay, kaolin, talc and asbestos are among the valuable resources of the state. The value of the total annual output is about \$12,000,000.

Fisheries. The waters of Puget Sound, the Columbia River and the indentations along the Pacific coast abound in excellent food-fish, and in the lakes and streams are found large quantities of fresh-water fish. The most important branch of the fisheries is catching and curing salmon (see SALMON). Second in point of value are the halibut fisheries. Large quantities of oysters, shrimp, clams and cod are also taken. In value of products of the fisheries Washington ranks fourth among the states.

Agriculture. Washington has a wide variety of soils. On the uplands of Eastern Washington wheat and other cereals are raised in large quantities. In the diked lands along Puget Sound oats are raised, and in the southeastern part barley constitutes the important crop. Rye, buckwheat and flax are also grown, and in some counties hops are a staple product. Many large irrigated areas east of the mountains are devoted to alfalfa, the state produces nearly 2,000,000 tons of hay annually. Potatoes, beets and other vegetables thrive and yield large returns.

Washington is one of the most important fruit-growing states of the Union. In the valleys of Eastern Washington there are thousands of orchards. This region is especially valuable for the raising of apples, pears, peaches, plums and cherries. In the western part of the state small fruits are raised in large quantities, and grapes are grown upon both sides of the mountains.

The mild winters and excellent pastureage make the raising of live stock profitable, and large numbers of cattle, horses, sheep and hogs are found. For all of these there is a

ready market. Dairying is also profitable and can be practiced under ideal conditions.

Manufactures Washington has abundant water power and a vast forest area. Because of these conditions, lumbering and its allied industries—the manufacture of doors, sash, shingles and furniture—constitute the leading manufacturing industry. Lumber mills are very generally distributed through the forest regions, but the most extensive establishments are found on the shores of Puget Sound, near the large forests of Western Washington.

The products of the flour and grist-mills are second in value, the most important commodity of the industry being white flour. Slaughtering and meat packing, the canning and curing of fish, printing and publishing and railroad-shop construction and repair are all prosperous lines of activity. Seattle, Tacoma and other ports are centers of shipbuilding. Seattle is the chief manufacturing city of the state, with Tacoma, Spokane, Everett, Bellingham, Aberdeen, Walla Walla and Yakima following.

The mineral resources have given rise to various other industries. In the Puget Sound Basin large quantities of lime are produced. Granite is quarried in Snohomish and Spokane counties. In other localities valuable sandstone occurs, and onyx of great variety and beauty is quarried in Stevens County. In King County are factories for the manufacture of brick, tile, terra cotta, stoneware and sewer pipe. The total value of all manufacturing output is over \$400,000,000.

Transportation. Puget Sound and the Pacific Ocean have a Washington coast line exceeding 2,000 miles in extent. The largest ocean ships can sail on the Sound as far as Seattle and Tacoma, which are the chief harbors of the state. Three transcontinental lines of railway cross the state from east to west. Railway lines extend north and south from the great centers of trade on Puget Sound, and connect all important cities and towns in the state and maintain junction points for cities in British Columbia. The most important roads are the Northern Pacific, the Oregon & Washington, the Great Northern, the Chicago, Milwaukee, Saint Paul & Pacific, the Pacific Coast Railroad, the Union Pacific and the Southern Pacific. The total mileage of the state is about 5,500. There are 18 airports and three major air routes. Five bus companies operate on seven principal

routes running both east and west and north and south. There are 900 miles of electric railway and 16,870 miles of surfaced roads.

Government. The legislature consists of a house of representatives, that cannot exceed ninety-nine members or be less than sixty-three, and a senate, whose number cannot exceed one-half, or be less than one-third of the number of representatives. The representatives are elected for two years, and the senators are elected for four years. The legislature meets biennially, and the regular sessions are limited to sixty days. The executive department consists of a governor, a lieutenant-governor, a secretary of state, a treasurer, an auditor, an attorney-general, a superintendent of public instruction, a commissioner of public lands, and an insurance commissioner, elected for four years. The courts consist of a supreme court of nine judges, elected for six years, and a superior court in each county, presided over by a judge elected for four years.

Education. The public schools are under the direction of the superintendent of public instruction and a board of education. The schools are organized on the district plan, and each district must maintain a school for at least five months in the year. Education is compulsory between the ages of eight and fifteen. The school fund is derived from state and local taxes and from income from the permanent fund derived from the sale and lease of school lands. The yearly cost of the public schools is about \$33,000,000. The white population of Washington shows the lowest percentage of illiteracy of any state in the Union. The state university is at Seattle and teachers colleges are maintained at Bellingham, Cheney and Ellensburg. The state agricultural college is at Pullman. Other colleges are located as follows: at Spokane, Gonzaga University, Whitworth College and Spokane University; the College of Puget Sound at Tacoma; Walla Walla College at College Place; Whitman College at Walla Walla; Seattle Pacific College at Seattle.

Other Institutions. The schools for the deaf and the blind are at Vancouver. The hospitals for the insane are at Fort Steilacoom, Sedro Woolley and Medical Lake, and there is a soldiers' home at Orting and a veterans' home at Port Orchard. The penal institutions consist of the penitentiary at Walla Walla and the reformatory at Monroe. The state training school is located at Chehalis.

WASHINGTON

THE EVERGREEN STATE



RHODODENDRON
STATE FLOWER

ORANGE OR
PINK SHIRT

MOUNT RAINIER



SPOKANE FALLS

IRON TIDE FLATS

Trade Coach



- PRODUCTS**
- GOLD
 - SILVER
 - LEAD
 - COAL
 - IRON
 - LIMESTONE
 - CROCHET
 - CABIN
 - APPLES & PEARS
 - CORN
 - ALVATA
 - PRUNES
 - HOPS
 - WHEAT
 - TOBACCO
 - SHUCK THE CRAB
 - HALIBUT
 - STURGEON
 - FLOUNDERS
 - OYSTERS

Items of Interest on Washington

The assessed valuation of taxable property is over a billion and a quarter dollars.

The lumber resources of the state will probably last for one hundred years.

The northern boundary of the state was fixed by treaty in 1846. "Fifty-four forty or fight" was a popular slogan in the presidential campaign of 1844, and represented the demands of citizens respecting this boundary.

Girls and boys between fifteen and sixteen who are unemployed are compelled to attend school.

Suffrage was granted to women in 1910.

Nearly 20 per cent of the potential hydro-electric power of the nation is credited to Washington.

The slopes of the Olympic Mountains have deep gorges and dense forests of fir, and are almost inaccessible.

The foreign-born make up 15.6 per cent of the population.

In a survey of the states made by the chief statistician of the Federal Office of Education, Washington stood first when measured by a ten-point scale.

Questions on Washington

Where are the Cascade Mountains?

Of what is the Columbia Plateau composed?

What is the principal drainage system in the state and which are the important tributaries?

How many acres in the national forests?

How do the fisheries rank among the states of the Union?

What is the value of the annual output of minerals?

What are the leading crops?

What is the principal manufacturing industry?

How does the value of its products compare with that of other states?

Name four other important industries.

What will be the most startling sights when you visit Washington?

How does the state rank in matters of education?

History. For early history, see Oregon, subhead *History*. The territory of Washington was separated from Oregon in 1853, and soon afterward the discovery of gold led to an influx of settlers, which in turn induced the Indians to plan a massacre, known as the Washington-Oregon War, in 1855. Indian troubles continued to appear from time to time, but the constant increase of white population finally led to the acceptance of reservations by the Indians. After the Civil War, there were violent anti-Chinese agitations, which for a time retarded the territory's growth. Numerous attempts were made to secure statehood, and in 1889 the Omnibus Statehood Bill, admitting the two Dakotas, Montana and Washington, was signed by the President, and Washington became a state. The growth in the population and wealth of Washington since its admission has been uninterrupted. The Alaska-Yukon Exposition of 1909 at Seattle admirably celebrated the growth of the state. In 1922 the private sale of drugs for narcotic purposes was by law declared a felony. In 1932 the Wenatchee hydroelectric dam across the Columbia River was completed.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

CITIES		
Aberdeen	Olympia	Vancouver
Bellingham	Seattle	Walla Walla
Everett	Spokane	Yakima
Houquiam	Tacoma	

MOUNTAINS AND RIVERS		
Cascade Range	Ranier, Mount	
Coast Range		Snake River
Columbia River		



WASHINGTON, the capital of the United States of America, named for the first President of the republic, and located on a site chosen by him. It lies on the Potomac River, 156 miles from Chesapeake Bay and 185 miles from the Atlantic Ocean, 135 miles southwest of Philadelphia and 228 miles southwest of New York. Chicago is 790 miles northwest, and Atlanta 648 miles southwest. Washington is coextensive with the District of Columbia, which covers an area of about seventy square miles. The southwestern border is formed by the Potomac River, into which flows Rock Creek.

Anacostia River cuts through the city a mile and a half from the southeastern boundary and flows into the Potomac at the southernmost point of the city.

The population was 456,869 in 1930, with about 25 per cent Negroes and 66 per cent foreign born.

Plan of the City. Washington was laid out according to suggestions made by President Washington, who employed Pierre Charles L'Enfant, a French civil engineer, to prepare the plans for the proposed city. It is said that L'Enfant rode over the ground with the President and commissioners and grew enthusiastic over the location, deeming it a fit site for the capital of a "mighty empire." Jefferson furnished L'Enfant with plans of the great cities of Europe, but the French engineer, faithful to the inspiration he had received from Versailles, determined to have broad avenues, vistas, streets and parkings, which make Washington truly the "City of Magnificent Distances." The Capitol was located on a hill, which was then a thick wood, the lines of latitude and longitude which marked its center were carefully surveyed, and the streets and avenues were laid from this point with mathematical exactness. It was manifestly the intention that the chief front of the Capitol should be toward the east, and that the public buildings should be placed about that side; but many forces contributed to change this idea, and now the west front, with its great terraces topping the hill and with its magnificent stairways extending far down the side, is worthy to be called the main entrance.

From the middle of the four sides of the site of the Capitol extend four great streets, which separate the city into quarters, known as North West, North East, South West and South East. These four streets are known as North and South Capitol, East Capitol and the Mall. The last is a beautiful park area, which takes the place of a West Capitol street. The streets running parallel to East Capitol and the Mall are named, both north and south, for the letters of the alphabet. The streets parallel to North and South Capitol are numbered consecutively east and west. Broad avenues, named for the states, traverse the city from northwest to southeast and from northeast to southwest. All of this will be clearly understood if the reader will study the accompanying map. In locating any place it is necessary, of course, to mention the quar-

ter of the city. When this is done, the location is very definite, for instance, 1850 F Street N.W., would be known to lie between Eighteenth and Nineteenth streets on F Street, in the northwestern part of the city. In the addressing of mail to the North West section, it is customary to omit the letters N.W., but those for the other three sections should always be written.

The North West quarter of the city contains most of the business houses, the finest residence section and most of the government buildings. Pennsylvania Avenue extends northwest from the Capitol for about a mile to the Treasury building, there it bends sharply to the north and again to the west, here passing in front of the Executive Mansion and the State, War and Navy building, beyond that it turns again to the northwest. F, G, Seventh and Ninth streets North West are among the important business streets.

Washington is connected with all of the states by the Baltimore & Ohio, the Pennsylvania, the Chesapeake & Ohio, the Southern and other railroads. All trains enter the magnificent Union Station north of the Capitol. Seven principal bus and two air lines serve the city. The Washington-Hoover is a private airport, Bolling Field belongs to the army, the navy maintains the Naval Air Station. Electric railways and motor buses afford easy transportation throughout the city and to Mount Vernon, Arlington and other points of interest.

Parks and Boulevards. The park surrounding the Capitol occupies sixteen city blocks, crowning a hill 58 feet high, overlooking the west half of the city. It is laid out with drives and walks, bordered by magnificent trees and beautiful shrubbery, interspersed with beds, in which blossom the flowers of the season. The small ornamental buildings, fountains and statuary lend a peculiar charm to the whole park.

From the west front of the Capitol a person looks down upon the broad Mall, which extends about a mile to the imposing Washington Monument, and then on to the Lincoln Memorial. In the Mall trees, shrubs and plants beautify the walks and drives. Along the north side of the Mall are grouped the great series of Federal buildings in the "triangle" area bounded by Pennsylvania and Constitution avenues on the north and south and by Fifteenth Street on the west. Running north from the west end of the Mall are the

Executive grounds, a magnificent tract which, with the private gardens of the White House, cover about twenty city squares. North of the White House and across Pennsylvania Avenue is Lafayette Square, another fine park adorned with fine statuary.

The intersections of the avenues and streets throughout the city form squares and circles

city filtration plant. In the spring, when the foliage is fresh and the flowers in the parks are in full bloom no more beautiful city is to be found.

A survey of the statues and memorials distributed over the city is both an extensive and a very instructive undertaking. Special mention should be made of the statues of George



MAP AND KEY OF WASHINGTON, D. C.

1. Washington Circle	13. Department of Commerce	23. Archives Building
2. U. S. Naval Hospital	13. The White House	24. Court House
3. National Academy of Sciences	14. Treasury Building	25. Army Medical Museum
4. Interior Department	15. Washington Monument	26. Capitol Park.
5. Lincoln Memorial	16. Bureau of Engraving and Printing.	27. U. S. Supreme Court.
6. Corcoran Art Gallery.	17. Department of Agriculture.	28. The Capitol
7. Continental Hall	18. National Museum	29. Government Printing Office
8. Pan-American Union	19. Smithsonian Institution.	30. Post Office
9. State, War and Navy Building	20. Internal Revenue.	31. Union Station
10. Lafayette Square	21. Patent Office.	32. Senate Office Building
11. Memorial Arlington Bridge	22. Pension Office.	33. Library of Congress
		34. House Office Building.

which are public gardens filled with statuary, flowers and shrubs. Out beyond Rock Creek is the great National Zoological Park, which in time will become one of the greatest in the world. North and south of this extends Rock Creek Park, a tract which is preserved in all its natural beauty.

Along the river is Potomac Park, a tract of 737 acres, adjacent to the west end of the Mall, made up of reclaimed land. The Soldiers' Home four miles north of the Capitol is in a beautiful park of 500 acres. To the south of it is McMillan Park, containing a

Washington, and statues of Andrew Jackson, Abraham Lincoln, Winfield S. Scott, John A. Rawlins, James B. McPherson, George H. Thomas, Joseph H. Henry, David S. Farragut and John Marshall. There are many others.

The memorials include the Emancipation Group, the Adams Memorial, Samuel Gompers and American Federation of Labor Memorial, among many others of equal or greater distinction.

Public Buildings and Institutions. Chief of all the public buildings is the Capitol

which because of its towering dome is conspicuous from any direction in which one approaches the city. The original plans for the Capitol were drawn by Doctor Thornton, a native of the West Indies, but they were redrawn by Stephen H. Hallet, they were followed in the construction of the first building, which little resembled the Capitol of to-day. The north wing was finished in 1800, but the opposite wing was not ready until eleven years later. A wooden passageway then connected them. After the British burned the Capitol in 1814, the new central structure was planned, and the original building was completed in 1827, at a cost of not quite \$2,500,000. In 1851 the building was remodeled, and in 1856 the erection of the present iron dome was begun.

The Capitol as it now stands, together with its approaches, has cost about \$26,000,000. The building is 751 feet long and 350 feet in its greatest width, and it covers nearly four acres of ground. Within this imposing building are the two chambers occupied by the Senate and the House of Representatives, and apartments for the various committees and officials who meet at the Capitol, and other rooms, made necessary by the great amount of business transacted there. The rotundas, the marble stairways and the dome are decorated with choice statuary and paintings by famous American artists. Most of the paintings depict great events in the nation's history. The famous doors, designed by Randolph Rogers, which guard the east entrance, are ornamented in high relief with historic scenes from the life of Columbus. The old Hall of Representatives is now called Statuary Hall. See STATUARY HALL.

To the north, and in a space adjoining the Capitol grounds, is a massive granite building, in which are located offices for the Senators, and to the south are two other buildings of white marble, which contain offices for the members of the House of Representatives. These great structures constitute a notable contribution to the splendid group of buildings which crown Capitol Hill.

Along the Mall are the buildings of the Fish Commission, the Medical Museum, the great National Museum, the Smithsonian Institution, the Agricultural Department and the Bureau of Engraving and Printing. The buildings on the north side of the Mall include those of the Commerce Department, the Interstate Commerce Commission, the

Post Office Department, Internal Revenue and others. East of the White House is the low, massive Treasury Department building, while west of it rises the magnificent building of the State, War and Navy Departments. The government Printing Office, the Pension Office and the Interior Department are in different localities of the North West quarter. Near the Capitol, and east of it, is the Library of Congress (See LIBRARY OR CONGRESS). The new Supreme Court building faces the Capitol on the east.

The Lincoln Memorial (1922), an imposing marble temple with Doric columns, is situated on the bank of the Potomac at the west end of the Mall, within is the colossal statue of Lincoln by Daniel Chester French. At this point the beautiful Memorial Bridge reaches across the Potomac to Arlington Cemetery.

The Navy Yard, the Arsenal and the War College occupy sites on the river at the south side of the city. Other buildings widely famous are the Corcoran Art Gallery, the Pan-American Union building, the Scottish Rite Temple, the Freer Gallery of Art, the National Academy of Sciences, the United States Chamber of Commerce building and the home of the National Geographic Society.

The Municipal Center is at John Marshall Place, north of Pennsylvania Avenue. The old Supreme Court building is the center of the group which includes accommodations for the municipal court, the police court, the recorder of deeds, the administration office of the District, offices of the public library and the Board of Education. The new buildings are limited to six stories in height.

Religious denominations have done their share in adding distinction to the city. Among famous church buildings is the Protestant Episcopal Cathedral of Saint Peter and Saint Paul. The project resulting in this magnificent structure was begun in 1891. It will be completed as funds are provided but is now so far advanced as to be a national shrine. It is situated on Mt. Saint Albans on a plot of 67 acres. The ground floor will accommodate 27,000 persons standing. It is built chiefly of Indiana limestone. Several institutions are housed in this edifice.

In the National Shrine of the Immaculate Conception, the dome is a distinctive architectural feature, there is also a triple apse with each part divided into five chapels. The Methodist Episcopal Church South, near Mount Vernon Square, cost \$500,000. The

Baptist Memorial Church represents both the Northern and the Southern Baptists. President Lincoln worshipped at the famous New York Avenue Presbyterian Church.

The colored people own many churches, including the famous Asbury Memorial.

Government of the Capital City. The city boundary is that of the District of Columbia. Congress governs the District through a commission appointed by the President. Government influences dominate all of the city's interests.

Residents in the District of Columbia even though citizens of the United States have no right of suffrage. It is left to voluntary organizations to consolidate public opinion in any effort to influence Congress in respect to civic affairs.

Educational Institutions. This is a great educational center. The public schools are excellent, the system was founded by a board of trustees of which Thomas Jefferson was the first president. Among the higher institutions of learning are Georgetown University, George Washington University, Catholic University of America, American University, National University, and Howard University for Negroes. More than 150 high grade private boarding schools and special schools give undergraduate instruction.

Supplementing the universities are the great scientific bureaus and institutions for research maintained by the government; these deal with problems of labor, education, fisheries, geological survey, health, scientific standards, forest conservation, weather and soil fertility. In fact there is scarcely a scientific area that is not investigated by government officials. There are 200 specialized libraries, some of them having large collections of valuable books.

The Smithsonian Institution, founded by James Smithson, an Englishman, who gave half a million dollars for its establishment, and the more recent Carnegie Institution, with an endowment of \$10,000,000, are the leading private foundations for the advancement of knowledge.

History. Washington enjoys the distinction of having been designed and built for the capital of a great nation. Rome, London, Paris and Berlin grew out of the national conditions surrounding them and became the capitals of great empires, but the capital of the United States was located in a region sparsely populated and almost wholly wild,

it was built from plans that were created before any city was in existence there. The site was selected by the great President whose name was given the city, and he watched over its early days with a personal care and interest.

Congress held its first session in the Capitol in 1800. The city grew until 1814, when, after a weak resistance by American troops at Bladensburg, it was captured by the British, who set fire to the public buildings and some private residences, with the expectation of destroying the entire city. A storm put out the conflagration, and the next day the British, in a panic of unnecessary fear, retreated, leaving Washington to be immediately rebuilt. At the breaking out of the Civil War it contained about 61,000 inhabitants. Beginning about 1900, following plans and designs by eminent architects and artists, vast improvements have been made in the appearance of the buildings erected by the Federal Government especially in the section between the Capitol and the White House.

Related Articles	Consult the following titles for additional information:
Corcoran Art Gallery	National Museum
District of Columbia	Potomac River
Library of Congress	Smithsonian Institution
Washington Monument	White House
Mount Vernon	

WASHINGTON, BOOKER TALIAFERRO (about 1856-1915), an American negro educator. Freed from slavery by the Civil War, he began work in a salt furnace in West Virginia, attended a night school and obtained the rudiments of an education. He then went to Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute, where he remained three years. After this he took a complete course at Wayland Seminary in Washington, D. C., and then became an instructor at Hampton, in charge of the work of the Indian pupils and of the night school.

His success was phenomenal, and in 1881 he was selected by General Armstrong, principal of the institute, to start a normal school at Tuskegee, Ala. He began his work in an old building, with thirty pupils, but in the course of the year purchased the plantation where the Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute is now located. Under his management this school developed into the largest and most influential industrial school for colored people in the world (see TUSKEGEE NORMAL AND INDUSTRIAL INSTITUTE).

He wrote *The Future of the American Negro, Up from Slavery* (his autobiography), *Character Building, The Story of My Life* and *Working with the Hands*



ASHINGTON, GEORGE (1732-1799), an American soldier and statesman, the hero of American independence, and the first President of the nation which he helped to establish. There are two Americans of the generations now past who have won the undying love and reverence of their countrymen—Washington and Lincoln.

Though they are equally honored, the one as founder and the other as preserver of the American nation, they are thought of as totally different types. Lincoln, so much nearer our own time, is by far the more human figure. His humanity, his rugged appearance, his humor and his kindness are remembered as the characteristics of a very real man. Washington is more or less of a mythical personage. The idealized portrait painted by Charles Stuart, reproduced here-with in full page is in a way symbolic of the impression that Americans cherish of the "Father of His Country." He seems to them a lofty figure somewhat detached from everyday life, a great man, but one aloof from his fellowmen; a strong man, but without fire and vigor. The complete record of his life refutes these ideas. There is every reason to believe that if he were alive to-day he would be a virile and influential figure in American political affairs, a personality as vivid as in his own time.

Ancestry and Youth. The family of the first President came of a line of well-born Englishmen. They were the Washingtons of Sulgrave Manor, in Northamptonshire, who traced their ancestry to a Norman knight of the twelfth century. About the year 1657 John and Lawrence Washington, brothers, emigrated to America, and shortly afterwards purchased estates in Westmoreland County, Virginia. The eldest son of John was Lawrence Washington, the grandfather of the future President. His second son, Augustine, married Mary Ball as his second wife, and the first child of the marriage, George, was born on February 22, 1732, at Bridges Creek,

now Wakefield, in Westmoreland County. When George was three years old his parents removed to an estate on the Rappahannock River, in Stafford County, and there the boy's first school days were spent. He went to his classes in an old-fashioned school house where the sexton of the parish acted as teacher.

At the age of eleven George lost his father, and his widowed mother sent him to the old homestead at Bridges Creek to live with his half brother, Augustine. There he attended school until he was nearly eighteen, geometry and surveying being included in his studies. While he was not an apt classical student, he made excellent progress in surveying, and throughout this school period he cultivated robust health by outdoor exercise, such as horseback riding and athletic games. It was when he was thirteen that he wrote the rules of good behavior now so well known.

Soon after he left school George went to live with his eldest half brother, Lawrence, who was occupying that portion of the estate known as Mount Vernon. Lawrence Washington had married the daughter of William Fairfax, who was the manager of the great estate of his cousin, Lord Fairfax, the head of the family. Lord Fairfax conceived a great liking for young Washington, and presently entrusted to him the task of marking out the boundaries of the Fairfax estate. George began his duties in 1748, when he was but a few days past sixteen, and for many months he endured the hardships of a surveyor in the wilderness. His work was so well done that he was subsequently appointed public surveyor of Culpeper County, and his surveys were considered admirable examples of thoroughness and accuracy.

In 1751 George accompanied his brother Lawrence on a trip to the West Indies. The journey was undertaken in the hope of restoring the elder brother's health, undermined by service in the British navy. In 1752, a few months after the brothers returned to Virginia, Lawrence died, and George found himself the guardian of his means and one of the executors of the estate. The death of this niece a few years later made him master of the manor and the beautiful grounds about it—the Mount Vernon that is to-day a sacred place to all loyal Americans.

Early Military Career. Not long before he died Lawrence Washington had used his influence to have his brother appointed an

adjutant-general over one of the several military districts into which Virginia colony was divided. This division was rendered necessary by the threatened encroachments of the Indians and of the French, who were establishing posts along the Ohio. Washington's eager pursuit of the study of military tactics was interrupted by the trip to the West Indies, but he resumed his duties as adjutant-general after his return, and late in 1753 was requested by Governor Dinwiddie to carry a message of warning to the French forces in the Ohio Valley. It was a hazardous mission for a young man of twenty-one, and the selection reflects favorably upon Washington's reputation for reliability and good judgment. In November, accompanied by an experienced frontiersman, he started on his 600-mile journey. After many narrow escapes from the Indians and the perils of the wilderness, he completed his mission and reported to Governor Dinwiddie on January 16, 1754, at Williamsburg, the capital of Virginia. Shortly afterwards he was appointed lieutenant-colonel of the Virginia regiment.

A skirmish with the French in the summer of 1754, which was not decisive, was followed by a reorganization of the Virginia troops and Washington's temporary retirement from things military. Early in 1755, however, General Braddock arrived from England with two regiments of British regulars, and offered the young colonial a place on his staff, with the rank of colonel. Promptly accepting, Washington entered eagerly into the preparation of the campaign, and on July 9 took part in the disastrous fight at Fort Duquesne. How the English regulars were mowed down by bullets fired from behind trees, and how the Virginians under Washington saved the little army from annihilation by fighting under cover, as did the French and Indians, is known to every American school boy. The troops succeeded in withdrawing from the field, but Braddock was fatally wounded, and died four days later. Washington later reorganized the colonial troops and was their chief commander until 1758, when he retired to Mount Vernon to rest. It was with great satisfaction, however, that, in November, 1758, he accompanied the British forces to the smoking ruins of Fort Duquesne, which was renamed Fort Pitt in honor of England's great Prime Minister.

At Mount Vernon. The period between the close of the French and Indian War and the outbreak of the Revolution brought to Washington some of the happiest years of his life. In January, 1759, he married Mrs. Martha Custis, an attractive and wealthy young widow with two children, John and Martha Parke Custis. The management of his own and his wife's property provided an outlet for his business instincts, and he entered whole-heartedly into the public affairs of Virginia colony as a delegate to the House of Burgesses, to which he had been elected before his marriage. These duties, with those of a good churchman and a hospitable colonial gentleman, rounded out a life completely wholesome and happy. The Mount Vernon mansion was always filled to overflowing during the hunting season, but none of its inmates enjoyed the pleasures of the chase more than the master himself.

As relations grew strained between the colonies and the mother country, Washington for a long time hoped that an agreement might be reached without resort to war, and he was very guarded in his utterances. In 1769, however, he drew up a nonimportation agreement which was adopted by the House of Burgesses, and from that time on he refused to permit any of the banned articles to be brought into his house.

As a member of the provincial convention, held in August, 1774, at Williamsburg, he vigorously upheld the right of the colonies to govern themselves, and, moved by reports about the effects of the Boston Port Bill, exclaimed in an impassioned speech, "I will raise a thousand men and march with them, at their head, for the relief of Boston." Virginia sent him as one of its six delegates to the First Continental Congress, and in this and the succeeding Congress, held in 1775, he was clearly one of the commanding figures, though he let others make the speeches.

The Revolutionary War. On June 15, 1775, two months after the Battle of Lexington, Washington was unanimously chosen by Congress to be commander in chief of the Continental forces. Addressing the assembly the following day, he modestly accepted the honor, and assured the delegates that he would expect no remuneration except for his own expenses. He then departed on horseback for Boston, and on July 3, 1775, took command of the Continental army, in Cambridge. The old elm under which this cere-



GEORGE WASHINGTON
The unfinished portrait by Gilbert Stuart in the Athenaeum, Boston



MOUNT VERNON

It was Washington's great joy to return to Mount Vernon when the demands of his country permitted. He was a home-loving body. Here on his beautiful estate he "grew stronger, abler, and wiser in the happy years of rest and waiting which intervened" between his great periods of service.



WASHINGTON'S TOMB

many took place is still preserved as a cherished relic.

The military events of the long struggle which the colonies waged for independence are told in these volumes in the article on the Revolutionary War. The personal share of Washington in the hard-won victory cannot be overestimated, from the perspective of a century and a half it seems almost incredible that he did succeed. Difficulties beset him that would have broken the courage of a weaker man. His little army of barely 14,000 was lacking in arms, supplies, discipline and organization. There was no uniform policy among the colonies on any matters essential to the prosecution of the war, and authority was vested in too many officials and organizations to bring about any semblance of unity. There were bickering, quarrels and plots. Yet, somehow, Washington overrode all obstacles. For one thing, he was loved and trusted by his men, and because of that trust they endured terrible hardships to uphold him.

When the army went into winter quarters at Valley Forge, in December, 1777, Washington informed Congress that he had 2,898 men unfit for duty because they were "barefooted and otherwise naked." It is a matter of record that blood in the snow marked the path of those unshod troops as they marched into camp.

As a military leader Washington was superior to any of the field commanders sent over by England. In fact, his tactics in the movements on the Delaware River were characterized by Frederick the Great as the "most brilliant achievements recorded in military annals." Years later the old Prussian soldier sent his portrait to Washington, with this message: "From the oldest general in Europe to the greatest general in the world."

Coupled with his genius as a soldier was an abiding faith in the justice and ultimate triumph of the American cause. Toward the close of the struggle a movement was started to have Washington assume the title of king, but his repudiation of such a course was voiced in language as vigorous as he could make it. His great popularity never undermined his modest sense of his own worth or his deep-rooted conviction that the American nation was destined to be a democracy in which kings could have no part.

On November 2, 1783, he took final leave of his faithful army, and the following De-

cember appeared before Congress to resign the commission tendered him over seven years before. He said:

Having now finished the work assigned me, I retire from the great theatre of action, and, bidding an affectionate farewell to this august body, under whose orders I have long acted, I here offer my commission, and take my leave of all employments of public life."

"Ten years," replied the president of Congress, "from the theatre of action with the blessings of your fellow-citizens, but the glory of your virtues will not terminate with your military command. It will continue to animate remotest ages."

On Christmas Eve Washington arrived at Mount Vernon, where, during the interval before the organization of the government under the Constitution, he enjoyed once more the life of plantation owner and private citizen.

The Constitution and the First Administration. Five years after the signing of the peace treaty a new era called Washington again into public life. Under the Articles of Confederation affairs were steadily growing more chaotic, and in May, 1787, a convention was called to meet in Philadelphia to prepare a new form of union. To this body Washington was sent as head of the Virginia delegation, on its organization he was unanimously elected its president. In September the convention completed a new Constitution and gave it to the states for ratification. The influence that Washington exercised in the consummation of this great achievement is ably summarized in Woodrow Wilson's *History of the American People*:

It gave the convention great dignity that Washington had presided over its counsels and was heart and soul for the adoption of the measures it proposed. His name and quiet force had steadied the convention on many an anxious day when disagreement threatened hopeless breach. His fame and influence infinitely strengthened also the measures proposed, now that they were completed. He supported them because they were thorough-going and courageous and cut to the root of the difficulties under which the country was laboring. Issues had been joined now, as he had wished to see it joined, between government or no government, and the country was to know at last where it stood in the most essential matters of its life.

It is not surprising that when the votes of the first Electoral College were counted it was found that Washington was the unanimous choice for President of the United States. John Adams was honored with the Vice-Presidency.

Washington was inaugurated in New York, which was then the national seat of government. Standing on the balcony in front of the old Federal Hall, whose site is now occupied by the imposing Subtreasury, he took the oath of office on April 30, 1789, though the legal day for the ceremony was March 4. Difficulties in setting the new machinery in motion were responsible for the delay.

From the first he displayed in civil affairs the same qualities of leadership and invincible good judgment which he had shown during his military career. He set about informing himself concerning all that had happened during the period of the Confederation—the relations of the new government to foreign nations, and the questions of internal administration and finance, which were soon to become pressing issues. He also chose a remarkably strong Cabinet, including Thomas Jefferson and Alexander Hamilton, who, though directly opposite in their political opinions, were acknowledged leaders in the political life of the country.

The selection of Alexander Hamilton as head of the Treasury Department was momentous in its results, for through his far-seeing statesmanship the country was put on a sound financial basis. In accordance with Hamilton's program the national government assumed the debts of the states incurred during the war; a national bank and a mint were established, and a national income was provided for by duties on imports and a system of internal revenue.

Other important events of the first four years under the Federal Constitution were the organization of the United States Supreme Court, the admission of Vermont (1791) and Kentucky (1792) as states, the adoption of a decimal system of coinage, and the incorporation into the Constitution of the first ten amendments. So profoundly impressed were the people with the results of Washington's first term that there was a spontaneous demand that he serve again. Against his personal wishes he consented, and was unanimously reelected, being inaugurated in Philadelphia on March 4, 1793. The city of Washington did not become the national capital until 1800.

The Second Term. During this term international affairs for a time overshadowed domestic issues. A war between France and England vastly aroused the sympathies of a group friendly to France, and there were

some extremists who demanded that the nation go to its assistance. Another faction as vehemently urged neutrality or support for England. Washington, who saw clearly that the United States was too weak and insecure to be implicated in European quarrels, issued a proclamation of neutrality and refused to take sides. An unfortunate incident of this affair was the activity of Edmon, or "Citron," Genet, a Frenchman whose defiance of the proclamation caused the government considerable anxiety. The French sympathizers were also greatly exercised over the acceptance of the Jay Treaty (1794) with England. This treaty was not so favorable to America as its sponsors wished, but it was the best that could be obtained, and it served the purpose of averting war with England, which Washington felt would be a national calamity.

The power of the Federal government was vigorously exercised in this administration. In Pennsylvania in 1794 there occurred an insurrection in protest against the excise tax, to quell which Washington ordered out 15,000 militia. Trouble with the Indians was stilled by Anthony Wayne's victory over them at Fallen Timbers in 1794, and by the negotiation of treaties. Other events include the invention of the cotton gin by Eli Whitney; the erection of the first woolen mill in Massachusetts; the admission of Tennessee into the Union, and the development of two great political parties, by followers of Hamilton and Jefferson, respectively.

The End of the Story. Washington declined a third election, delivered his famous farewell address and retired to Mount Vernon in 1797. Thereafter he devoted himself to agriculture, though in 1798, at the prospect of the war with France, he was chosen commander in chief of the United States army and accepted, though he was not called into the field. He died in December, 1799, from illness brought on by long exposure in the saddle. The news caused almost as widespread mourning in Europe as in America. The greatest statesmen and soldiers of every nation united in paying him tribute as a man, general, statesman and friend of humanity. The words of his old friend and companion, "Lighthorse Harry" Lee, "First in war, first in peace and first in the hearts of his countrymen," were without question literally true. He had avoided the snares of factional and partisan politics, had generously overlooked

Administration of George Washington, 1789-1797

I ELECTION AND INAUGURATION II THE PRESIDENT (1) Birth (2) Ancestry (3) Edmenton (4) Previous public career (5) Character (6) Rank as a statesman (7) Death	VI ELECTION OF 1796 (1) Political parties (a) Federalists (b) Republicans (2) Candidates (a) John Adams (b) Thomas Pinckney (c) Thomas Jefferson (d) Aaron Burr (3) Election of Adams Questions on Washington
III ORGANIZATION OF THE GOVERNMENT (1) Strict and loose constructionism (a) Followers of Hamilton (b) Followers of Jefferson (2) Executive departments (a) State (b) Treasury (c) War (d) Attorney-General (3) Federal courts established, 1789 (4) Financial measures (a) The public debt (b) The excuse, 1791 (c) Bank of the United States (d) The Mint (e) Tariff on imports, 1789	Where was Washington at the time of his election to the Presidency? Where was he inaugurated? What city was the capital during most of his administration? How does he rank as a soldier and statesman? In what way did Hamilton's ideas influence the organization of the government? What were the original executive departments? Was the Attorney-General the head of a department? Who were the members of the first Cabinet? When were the Federal courts established? What compromise was necessary before Hamilton could secure the assumption of the state debts? When was the Bank of the United States organized? What were some of its powers? When was the first tariff law passed? What was its primary object? When was the first census taken? What states were admitted during Washington's term of office? What caused the trouble with the Indians in the Northwest? What battles were fought and with what result? What party was friendly to France? Why? Give an account of Genet's visit to the United States What was the Jay Treaty? What did it accomplish?
IV DOMESTIC AFFAIRS (1) Governmental (a) Last state ratifies the Constitution (b) Census of 1790 (c) Whisky Insurrection, 1794 (d) Admission of Vermont, Kentucky, Tennessee (e) Site of Washington chosen (f) Ten Amendments (g) Campaigns against the Indians (2) General (a) Invention of cotton gin (b) Death of Franklin (c) Slavery (d) Settlement of Northwest Territory	
V FOREIGN AFFAIRS (1) Genet and quarrel with France (2) Jay Treaty (3) Treaty with Spain (a) Opened the Mississippi (b) Florida boundary	

the harshest criticisms and had respected and used the abilities of his severest critics and opponents. Though a slave-holder at his death, he was in favor of the gradual abolition of slavery by legislation, and by his will he arranged that his one hundred twenty-five slaves should be emancipated at the death of his wife, so that the negroes of the two estates who had intermarried might not be separated. Washington's body and that of his wife, who survived him nearly three years, rest in the family vault at Mount Vernon.

Consult Lodge's *George Washington*, in the *American Statesmen Series*, and Fiske's *Washington and His Country*, a condensed and simplified edition of Washington Irving's *Life of Washington*.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

Braddock, Edward	Political Parties in Constitution
French and Indian Wars	Tariff
Genet, Edmon C	Revolutionary War
Jay Treaty	United States
Mount Vernon	Whisky Insurrection

WASHINGTON, MARTHA (1732-1802), the wife of George Washington, born in New Kent County, Va., the daughter of John Dandridge, a wealthy planter. Her first husband, to whom she was married in 1759, was Daniel Parke Custis. She was married to George Washington in 1759. As mistress of the White House she won a firm place in the hearts of the people. She died at Mount Vernon two years and a half after the death of President Washington.

WASHINGTON, Pa., the county seat of Washington County, situated thirty-two miles southwest of Pittsburgh, on the Pennsylvania and the Baltimore & Ohio railroads. It is the seat of the Washington and Jefferson College, the oldest college west of the Alleghenies, and also of the Washington Seminary. Notable structures are the Federal building, courthouse, library, sanitarium and hospital buildings. Washington is said to have erected the first community building in the United States. Glass, tube, tin plate, pottery and baby carriages are the leading manufactures. The place was settled in 1768 and was originally called Baysettown. It received its present name in 1784 and was chartered as a borough in 1832. Population, 1920, 21,190; in 1930, 21,545, a gain of 14 per cent.

WASHINGTON, TREATY OF, the treaty between the United States and Great Britain, signed in 1871, providing for the settlement of several difficulties between the two countries, chief of which were the Alabama

claims. A commission, which consisted of five representatives of Great Britain, headed by Earl de Grey and Sir John MacDonald, and five representatives of the United States, headed by Hamilton Fish and E. R. Hoar, began its meetings May 8 at Washington. It referred the Alabama Claims to a special court, which was to meet at Geneva (see ALABAMA, THE GENEVA ARBITRATION). It provided for the establishment of a mixed commission, to discuss and decide upon the northwestern fisheries question, and it submitted the northwest boundary dispute to the arbitration of the emperor of Germany. It also laid down certain rules regarding neutrality in war, which were to govern the Geneva Tribunal in deciding the Alabama question and which have since been considered the true principles of international law upon the subject.

WASHINGTON, UNIVERSITY OF, a coeducational state institution founded at Seattle. It was organized in 1861, but the regular four years' courses were not established until 1877. In 1889 it became the state university, as Washington entered the Union that year. It maintains a college of liberal arts, a college of engineering, a school of forestry, a school of mines, a school of business administration, a library school, colleges of pharmacy and law and a graduate department. The university has a faculty of nearly 300, and a student body of over 5,000. The library contains over 250,000 volumes.

WASHINGTON AND LEE UNIVERSITY, an institution for men only located at Lexington, Va. It was established as the Augusta Academy in 1749 and afterwards renamed Washington Academy in recognition of a gift of money made to the institution by the "Father of his Country." This gift still yields an annual income of \$3,000. In 1865 General Robert E. Lee was made president of the institution, a position which he held with great influence upon the students for five years. In 1871 the present name of the institution was adopted. The university is divided into schools of commerce, applied science, law, journalism, and courses leading to the degrees of B.A., B.S., and LL.B. It has a faculty of about 60 members, about 900 students and property and endowment aggregating \$1,700,000.

WASHINGTON ARCH, a beautiful memorial structure, erected to commemorate the

first inauguration of George Washington as President of the United States. It stands at the foot of Fifth Avenue, New York, and was designed by Stanford White. It is of marble, seventy-seven feet high and sixty-two feet broad, with a single archway forty-seven feet high and thirty feet broad. Its cost of \$128,000 was met by popular subscription.

WASHINGTON ELM, a famous elm, formerly standing near the northwest corner of the Common, in Cambridge, Mass. Near the base was a stone seat with the inscription "Under this tree Washington took the command of the American Army July 3, 1775." Although carefully protected, the tree fell to the ground October 26, 1923.

WASHINGTON MONUMENT, an imposing marble obelisk in Washington, D. C., measuring 555 feet in height. It is situated in the Monument Gardens, south of the White House. It was begun in 1848, but was not dedicated until 1885, on Washington's birthday. The top, from which a magnificent view of the surrounding country is obtained, is reached by an elevator and by a wide, concrete interior stairway. The monument covers an area of 16,000 square feet and cost \$1,187,710.

WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY, a coeducational school at Saint Louis, Mo., founded in 1853 by Dr. William Greenleaf Eliot, on condition that it be kept nonsectarian and nonpartisan. Its activities were carried on in different parts of the city till 1905, when all were removed to the present fine location west of Forest Park. Ten new granite buildings on this site were occupied by exhibits and executive offices of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition in 1904. The departments of the university are those of engineering, architecture, law, medicine, dentistry, fine arts and social economy. The faculty numbers 600, and the student registration is about 3,600. The library contains 300,000 volumes.

WASHITA, wash'tah, RIVER, or OUACHITA RIVER, a river that rises in the western part of Arkansas, flows southeast and then south into Louisiana and discharges into the Red River, about fifteen miles above the confluence of that stream with the Mississippi. The Washita is connected with the Mississippi by a series of bayous. Its length is 550 miles, and it is navigable for steam-boats for about 350 miles.

WASP, wasp, a winged insect resembling the bee in many respects. The body is bluish in color, with yellow markings, or black, marked with white or yellow. Common wasps live in societies, or colonies, composed of males, females and workers, or neuters (see Bee). The females are armed with an extremely powerful and venomous sting, the males do not sting.

The nest of the wasp is ingenious, both in material and construction. It is built in the ground or attached to a wall or tree, and is composed of a kind of chewed wood pulp or paper manufactured by the females. Within these nests the combs are enclosed completely, except for the small opening where the wasps enter. The cells of the comb, in which the larvae and pupae are reared, are six-sided and arranged in tiers, with the mouth downward or sideways.

Wasp colonies multiply rapidly, and have been known to attain to 30,000 members in a favorable summer season. But in the fall all the members perish except a few females, which pass the winter under stones or in hollow trees. Wasps are voracious insects, living upon sugar, meat, fruit, honey or the juices of other insects. Certain species live solitary lives, each mother making its own nest and caring for its own eggs and larvae.

WATAUGA ASSOCIATION, in American history a name given to an association of settlers, formed in 1772, in the eastern part of what is now Tennessee, just west of the Alleghany Mountains. Articles were drawn up for the purpose of creating a government for the district, and provision was made for five executive counselors, thirteen legislators, a sheriff and an attorney. The government had no jurisdiction over any but the signers of the compact, and the territory soon swarmed with outlaws and adventurers. In order to secure protection, the community, under the name of Washington District, asked for and secured representation in the North Carolina Assembly.

WATCH, a small, portable mechanism for measuring time, having about the same number of wheels as a clock, geared in the same manner, but differing from a clock in having a hairspring and a balance wheel, instead of a pendulum, and in having its parts much smaller and more delicately adjusted. It is attached to a chain and carried in the pocket, or to a bracelet and worn on the wrist.

Mechanism. A watch consists of two parts, the case and the works. The case is of metal, usually gold or silver, and it is made with one or two covers. The works consist of two plates, perforated for the purpose of holding the wheels in position, and so arranged that they contain, between them, all of the wheels except the balance wheel. The lower plate, known as the pillar plate, rests next to the dial. The upper plate may be in one or in several pieces, but in the best-made watches it is usually in one piece. These plates are bored and chiseled so that each wheel fits perfectly into its place. The perforations, in which the minute axles of the wheels rest, are usually set in jewels, which prevent wear. There are four wheels in the watch, these are (1) the barrel wheel, within which the mainspring is attached, (2) the first wheel, (3) the second wheel and (4) the third wheel, which is attached to the pinion of the escapement wheel. The motion is imparted by the uncoiling of the spring and is regulated by the escapement, which is kept in operation by the action of the mainspring and the hairspring combined, the two giving it an oscillating movement. The wheel which meshes into the pinion of the escapement wheel revolves once a minute and has sixty teeth upon its circumference. The pinion of this wheel meshes into the circumference of the wheel which gives the motion to the minute hand, and this meshes into the pinion of the center wheel, which gives the motion to the hour hand. The watch is regulated by a lever device, connected with the hairspring. By moving this to the right, or left, the tension is lessened or strengthened.

Watch Making. The works of a watch have for their foundation two plates of an alloy of brass and nickel. These plates are cut at the foundry, where the metal is cast, from dies furnished by the watch factory.

The rough plates are passed under trimming, or stripping, punches, which smooth off the roughness. Indentations absolutely exact are then made in the foundation plate, to allow room for the wheels. The plate is placed under the lathe portion of a machine, and a steel copy of what it is to be is fastened to another part. The machine follows the outline of the steel model, gradually cutting out the foundation plate, so that the various parts of the mechanism of the watch will be thrown into proper position. The

thickness of the plate and the depth of the indentations are measured so as to be perfect, according to a gauge, two degrees of which equal the thousandth part of an inch. The necessary screw holes and apertures for the settings are then drilled into the plate. The work on the upper plate is done in the same manner. The plates are then polished and smoothed down, on an Ayr stone, a stone harder than a soapstone and softer than emery, capable of polishing without scratching.

The jewels used in watch making are garnets, rubies, sapphires and diamonds. Garnets are most common and are cut with diamond points into minute disks and then smoothed and pierced. These disks are set in larger disks of gold. The foundation plates are given an ordinary heavy plating of gold, by the battery process, and the jewels with their settings are fitted and fastened into the plate by exceedingly small screws.

The wheels of a watch are stamped out of sheets of brass, with the exception of one or two pieces. The screws and springs are made from sheet steel, the screws being cold-drawn from wire. In tempering some of the screws, the workman uses a thermometer of a peculiar sort, in order to regulate accurately the temperature to which they are to be heated and cooled. Others are regulated by a careful observation of their color. The figures are printed on the dial by a process resembling lithography (see LITHOGRAPHY). The base of the dial is of copper and is stamped out of a thin sheet of the metal, in such a manner that a rim is left turned up for a short distance all around. Powdered enamel is spread on the disk, and it is then fired, like pottery or china. Steel plates are engraved with the design to be executed, and the lines are filled with a mineral paint of the desired color. The plate is then passed under a roller, covered with sheet rubber, and the dial receives the impression from the rubber on the roller. It is again fired, and when fancy colors are employed, each color requires a separate impression and firing. The balance wheel requires forty different steps in its manufacture.

When all the parts are assembled, the watch is taken to a refrigerator and subjected to cold. This is followed by a period in a hot air compartment, the two tests ranging from 40° to 103° F. The making of

watches by hand is thought to have originated in Germany about 1500. Since the advent of the machine-made watch, the United States has reached the foremost position as a watch-manufacturing country. The largest watch factory in the world is at Waltham, Mass., and another, nearly as large, is located at Elgin, Ill. See CLOCK.

WATER, the liquid that covers five-sevenths of the earth and is essential to all animal and vegetable life, is a chemical compound of hydrogen and oxygen in proportion of two atoms of the former to one of the latter. Its chemical symbol, therefore, is H₂O. Pure water is a colorless, tasteless, odorless liquid. It appears blue, like the atmosphere, when seen in mass.

Three Forms of Water Water takes three forms, each depending upon temperature. It takes a solid form, that of ice or snow, at 32° Fahrenheit (0° Centigrade) and all lower temperatures, and it takes the form of vapor or steam at 212° F (100° C) under a pressure of 29.9 inches of mercury, and it retains that form at all higher temperatures. Under ordinary conditions, water possesses the liquid form only at temperatures lying between 32° and 212°. It is, however, possible to cool water very considerably below 32° F and yet maintain it in the liquid form. Water may also be heated, under pressure in the laboratory, many degrees above 212° F, without passing into the state of steam.

The specific gravity of water is 1 at 39.2° F, (that is, one cubic centimeter of water weighs one gram), and it is the unit to which the specific gravities of all solids and liquids are referred, as a convenient standard, one cubic inch of water, at 62° F and 29.9 inches barometrical pressure, weighs 353.458 grams. Distilled water is 81.5 times heavier than atmospheric air. Water is at its greatest density at 39.2° F (4° C), and in this respect it presents a singular exception to the general law of expansion by heat. If water at 39.2° F be cooled, it expands as it cools, till reduced to 32°, when it solidifies, and if water at 39.2° F be heated, it expands as the temperature increases, in accordance with the general law. Were it not for this peculiar property of water, ice would settle to the bottom of lakes and streams and they would become masses of solid ice, a condition which would soon destroy all life upon the earth.

So-called heavy water differs from ordinary water in having two atoms of heavy hydrogen and one atom of oxygen.

Water as a Solvent From a chemical point of view, water is a neutral fluid and shows in itself neither acid nor basic properties, but it combines with both acids and bases, forming hydrates, and with neutral salts. Water also enters, as a liquid, into physical combination with the greater number of all known substances. Of all liquids, water is the most powerful and general solvent, and on this important property its use depends. In consequence of the great solvent power of water, it is never found pure in nature. Even in rain water, which is the purest, there are always traces of carbonic acid, ammonia and sea salt. Where the rain water has filtered through rocks and soils and reappears as spring or river water, it is always more or less charged with salts derived from the earth, such as sea salts, gypsum and chalk. When the proportion of these is small, the water is called soft; when larger, it is called hard water. The former dissolves soap better and is therefore preferred for washing, the latter is often pleasanter to drink. The only way to obtain perfectly pure water is to distill it, but water simply held in suspension may be taken out by suitable filtration.

Sources of Water The great reservoirs of water on the globe are the seas and lakes, which cover more than three-fifths of its surface, and from which water is raised by evaporation. Uniting with the air in the state of vapor, it is wafted over the earth, ready to be precipitated in the form of rain, snow or hail. Water, like air, is absolutely necessary to life, and healthy human life requires that it should be free from contamination, hence, an ample and pure water supply is considered as one of the first laws of sanitation.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information.		
Boiling Point	Frost	River
Chemistry	Hail	Snow
Cloud	Humidity	Spring
Dew	Hydrogen	Steam
Distillation	Ice	Vapor
Erosion	Mineral Waters	Water Power
Evaporation	Ocean	Water Purification
Precipitation	Rain	

WATER, OZONE BY See OZONE.

WATER BEETLE, any representative of several families of beetles which live in or upon the water. Three of the families include

beetles which live permanently in water, the rest include those species which live in the water only in the laræc (young) stage.

The *diving beetle* has a flat, oval body, over which the wings fit tight. The hind legs, which have a fringe of hairs, are flattened and adapted to swimming, the front legs are short. The common *water beetle* seen in summer darting over the surface of ponds has a water-tight compartment beneath the close-fitting wings for the storage of breathing air. In the evening these beetles leave the water and fly about. The larvae, called *water tigers*, are exceedingly rapacious, seizing in their sickle-like jaws small fish, tadpoles and other larvae, from which they suck the juices. Breathing is effected through tubes terminating in the tail, which is raised above the surface of the water.

The *whirling beetles*, so called from their habit of moving in circles on the water, have long, clawed front legs and shorter, paddle-shaped hind legs. The body has an oily surface unaffected by water, and the compound eyes are adapted for vision in water and in air. One of the largest of the water beetles is the glossy black beetle, often seen on the wing at night. These insects can be transferred to an indoor aquarium, and their whole interesting life history may be studied in the school room. See BEETLE.

WATER BUG, a name applied to any insect belonging to one of six large families, including *water striders*, *water boatmen*, *water scorpion*, *toad bugs* and *fish killers*. All have flat bodies, and are equipped with oar-shaped legs for swimming. They may be seen on summer days darting over the surface of ponds and lagoons or resting quietly on the surface, their bodies being knozed up by the air stored in various parts of the insects. If alarmed, they may dive to the bottom and cling to plants or stones. About a dozen species are found in America. Some of them leave the water and fly around lights at night, the electric light bug is one of these. Some of the adults hibernate in the mud of water bottoms in winter; others hibernate in rubbish on the banks, and here the eggs are deposited. When the young hatch they tumble into the water and feed on insects and other small animal food. The females of some species bore holes in aquatic plants and deposit their eggs there. In the United States the *cronch bug*, a house pest resembling the cockroach, is incorrectly called

water bug, because it is usually seen on or near warm-water pipes.

WATERBURY, Conn., one of the county seats of New Haven County, thirty miles southwest of Hartford, on the Naugatuck River and on the New York, New Haven & Hartford Railroad. It is an important manufacturing center, leading the United States in brass and copper goods and for this reason sometimes known as the "Brass City." The famous Waterbury watches have been manufactured here in immense numbers since 1870. There are also button factories, foundries, machine shops, knitting mills, clock factories, bottling works, publishing houses and engraving establishments.

Among the educational institutions are Saint Margaret's School for girls, Convent of Notre Dame, Gerard School, two business colleges and a public high school. Other important features are the Bronson Public Library, Waterbury Hospital, St. Mary's Hospital, Southwold Home for old ladies, the city hall and the Masonic Temple. The place was settled in 1677 and was known by the Indian name of Mattatuck until its incorporation as a town, in 1686. It was chartered as a city in 1853. In 1891 it suffered from a flood; in 1712 an epidemic proved fatal to about one-tenth of the population, and in 1902 a large portion of the business section was destroyed by fire. The town and city of Waterbury were consolidated in 1900 and cover an area of twenty-eight square miles. Population, 1920, 91,715; in 1930, 99,902.

WATER COLORS, pigments mixed and ground with gum size or some other adhesive substance, instead of oil. The water colors used in painting pictures are in the form of small, dry and hard cakes, while those used in coloring walls and the like are simply mixed up with glue or size. The quick drying of water colors is favorable to rapid execution, and a greater clearness and transparency is obtained than in an oil painting.

WATER DOG. See MU PUPPY

WATERFALL. See CATARACT

WATER LILY, a water plant with a gorgeous blossom, found in quiet waters of the temperate and torrid zones. From the cory bottom the stems rise to the top of the water; there the leaves open out and lie flat upon the surface, and the buds unfold, disclosing numerous petals, stamens and carpel. The flowers may be pink, white or blue, and

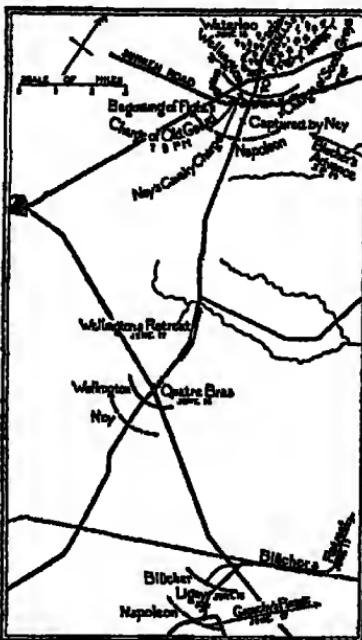
sometimes they are very fragrant. The most famous of water lilies is the Queen Victoria, a native of South America. The leaves, six feet or more in diameter, are flat, with upturned rim, and are often strong enough to support a man's weight. The blossoms, a foot in diameter, open on two successive nights, the first night they are white and fragrant, the second, pink and malodorous.

The Australian water lily is often as large and is usually blue. The Egyptian lotus is also a blue lily, famous since remote antiquity. The American pond lily is a lovely, creamy-white flower, with petals radiating in circles and a cluster of golden stamens. It expands to the sunshine and closes at dusk. The golden lily of Florida is a handsome flower, and the common yellow water lily of higher latitudes is less showy, but blooms all summer. A rose-colored variety is also found in North America. The seeds of the pond lily are sunk in pits in the flattened top of a hemispherical pod. Those of several species are edible, and are sometimes called *water chinquapins*. They were an important article of food among the Indians.

WATERLOO, BATTLE or, the famous battle, fought June 18, 1815, near Waterloo, a village in Belgium about eleven miles south of Brussels, between Napoleon and the allied forces under Blucher and Wellington. It was Napoleon's last battle, and it put an end to his power (see HUNDRED DAYS). There had been two preliminary battles on the 16th, one at Quatre-Bras, by which Ney, although forced to retire, prevented Wellington from joining his Prussian allies, and one at Ligny, in which the Prussians under Blucher were defeated by Napoleon. On the morning of the eighteenth the main French army was drawn up near Waterloo, opposite the allied British, Dutch and German forces, under Wellington. Blucher, with the Prussian army, was absent at the opening of the fight. The French army numbered about 72,000, the allied army about 67,000, of which number many were untrained troops.

Napoleon's plan was to defeat Wellington before Blucher could come up with his troops, but the ground was in such a condition from the rain that had fallen all night that he was obliged to delay opening battle until almost noon. Wellington, on the contrary, simply aimed to hold out until the Prussians arrived, when a combined attack might be made on

the French. In accordance with these plans the struggle throughout the day consisted chiefly of charges, brilliant but unsuccessful, on the part of the French, and firm resistance on the part of the English. The French



BATTLE OF WATERLOO

cavally, charging during the afternoon, plunged into an unseen sunken road, and unable to check their rush, they filled the great ditch with troopers, over whom the remainder rode on. These repeated charges, although stubbornly resisted, had their effect, and the outcome of the battle remained doubtful until late in the day, when the arrival of the Prussians, at a time when both armies were about exhausted completely turned the tide against the French. Napoleon's last effort was the charge of the Old Guard, the picked veterans from the Imperial Guard, late in the evening. Its rout was complete, and many of its squares, refusing to surrender or retreat, fell to the last man. Wellington now gave the order for a general advance, and the French, utterly overpowered, gave way at every point. The army broke up in confusion, and the dis-

astrous retreat, with the Prussians in pursuit, lasted through the night. Napoleon himself escaped by flight. The French lost in this battle probably thirty-one thousand in killed, wounded and missing, while the allies lost over twenty-two thousand.

The importance of the Battle of Waterloo as the means of finally crushing Napoleon has been somewhat exaggerated. Even had he been successful on that day, he could never have regained his old power. But the accomplishment of his overthrow that early in his campaign was fortunate for the allies and for the French, as it saved further bloodshed. See NAPOLON I.

WATERLOO, Iowa, the fifth city in the state in size, is the county seat of Black Hawk County, on the Red Cedar River and on the Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific, the Illinois Central, and the Chicago Great Western railroad. There is an airport. Waterloo is one of Iowa's rapidly growing cities. It is known as the "Factory City," it manufactures about twenty per cent of all the United States-made gasoline engines of the farm type. There are also foundries, malleable iron works, concrete works, machine shops, farm implement factories, packing houses, automobile fabric plants, refrigerator and cream separator factories.

The principal structures are a Federal building, a courthouse, municipal buildings, two Carnegie Libraries, Presbyterian, Allen, and St. Francis hospitals, adequate hotel facilities, and imposing bank buildings and business block. There are two business colleges, several private schools, and 45 churches. The city was settled about 1845, and was incorporated in 1869. Population, 1920, 36,230; in 1930, 46,191, a gain of 27.5 per cent.

WATERLOO, Ont., on the Canadian National Ry., three miles northwest of Kitchener. It is an important center for manufacturing, furniture, boots and shoes, threshing machines, buttons, mattresses, washing machines, trunks and bags, bricks and tiles being the most important products. Niagara electric power is furnished to the factories. There are good public and separate schools and six churches. Population, 1931, 8,085.

WATERMELON, a creeping variety of gourd. The rind of the fruit is smooth and dark green when ripe, the inside of the melon is a coarse red or yellowish pulp, ninety per cent of which is water. Its native name was Africa, but it has been widely cul-

tivated from remote times. It is very popular in the United States, where it has become a most important crop for the fruit-growers of the South Atlantic and Gulf states, in which sections thousands of acres are devoted to raising melons for the northern market. Watermelons in smaller quantities are raised as far north as Southern Ontario. The ideal soil for melon culture is light, sandy loam, which is naturally dry or else thoroughly drained. Most melons weigh from twenty to fifty pounds.

WATER PLANTS. See AQUARIUM PLANTS.

WATER POLO, a ball game similar to hockey, played by swimmers, with a ball filled with air, which floats. It is a good game for swimming tanks, and is then played generally throughout the winter season. The object of the game, of course, is for one side to carry, push or throw the ball to the opponent's goal line, at the end of the tank.

WATER POWER. A waterfall capable of being "harnessed" to perform work has been appropriately referred to as "white coal." Much of the machinery of the world is operated directly or indirectly by water power. A great factory located where the power of falling water is available may be electrically operated, but water power may be utilized to generate the electric current. The installation of a water-power plant usually requires the construction of a dam, a canal or flume to conduct the water to the great paddle wheel, where the power of the water is applied. The original expense may be greater than that of a steam or electric plant, but the extra cost is soon recovered by the saving in operating expenses. See WATER WHEEL.

Classification. Water-power plants are divided into three classes—*low-head*, *medium-head*, and *high-head*, according to the height of the fall. Low-head plants have a fall not exceeding 100 feet, medium-head, not exceeding 350 feet, and the high-head class includes all plants having a fall of more than 350 feet. The fall of some plants in this class exceeds 5,000 feet. Most of the great plants are of low-head type, and they are located on the banks of large streams. They gain in volume what they lose in fall. The largest plants of this type are at the Wilson Dam in Alabama and one at Keokuk, Iowa. The most noted plant of the medium-head type is at Niagara Falls.



ANCIENT DEVICES

Early methods of raising water and of utilizing its power are in use today. The Archimedean screw invented 200 B.C., is still used in Egypt, the Oriental resorts to foot-power, undershot and overshot waterwheels generate power to operate machines

Kaufman Photo



Plants of the high-head type are usually found on mountain streams having a rapid flow and small volume of water. A dam is constructed across a deep, narrow valley, to impound the water, which is conducted to the power house through steel pipes. The power house may be two or three miles below the dam, so a high fall is secured. These plants are operated by a small volume of water under very high pressure and they require a special type of water wheel (see TURBINE WHEEL). Their principal use is in generating electric power, which is often carried long distances over wires. The power used in operating the street cars in San Francisco, for instance, is generated over 125 miles from the city.

Estimating Water Power. The power of water for operating machinery is derived from its weight or pressure. The pressure of a column of water of a given height is equal to the weight of the water. A cubic foot of water weighs 62.5 pounds; therefore a column of water one foot square and ten feet high weighs 625 pounds, and at its base exerts a pressure on a square foot equal to that weight. The rule for estimating the horse power of a water fall is as follows: Multiply the flow in cubic feet per second by the height of the fall and then product by .1134. A fall of 100 feet and 600 cubic feet flow will have a power equal to $100 \times 600 \times .1134$, or 6,804 horse power.

Government Ownership. In the United States all water power on government land is under control of the government, and since the beginning of the present century stringent laws for preventing great power sites from falling into the hands of monopolists have been passed. Unfortunately, however, before the conservation movement was started, many valuable sites had been appropriated by capitalists and a legal claim to them had been established. Since water, like air, is one of the great natural resources of a country, the theory of the most enlightened governments is that it belongs to all the people; therefore all water power should be under control of the government, and it should be leased, not sold. Canada is far ahead of the United States in this respect, for in Canada all water power is under government control. Power sites may be leased, but none can be purchased.

It is estimated that the total water power of the United States is 30,000,000 horse

power, and that less than one-sixth of it has been developed. The water power of Canada is estimated at 43,000,000 horse power, only about fifteen per cent of which has been developed. Europe has 41,000,000 horse power, and utilizes only one-tenth of it. The water power of the other continents is not known.

WATERPROOFING. A process of rendering cloth and other articles proof against water. In the preparation of mackintoshes a solution of rubber is spread on the goods, and the cloth is doubled, pressed and finished with the waterproof layer in the middle. Such goods are impervious both to air and to water, but from a sanitary point of view they are not desirable for constant wear. A new process has been introduced, which renders the fabrics proof against water, but does not obstruct ventilation. The materials are saturated with soap and then dipped in an alum solution. Still another process, by which the same result is obtained, consists of treating the fibers of the cloth, instead of the manufactured, woven fabric, with the solution. Paraffin is often used as a substitute for rubber in waterproofing leather, wood and various other substances. Paper is made waterproof by immersing it in a solution of shellac in borax, a treatment which causes it to resemble parchment paper.

WATER PURIFICATION. Pure water is essential to health, and often one of the most perplexing problems connected with water supply is that of securing pure water. Because of its solvent power, all water obtained from natural sources contains more or less impurities, some of which may be highly injurious. Among the mineral impurities held in solution are usually found lime, iron, compounds of sulphur and sometimes compounds of lead. Impurities present but not held in solution are clay, particles of soil, animal and vegetable matter and bacteria.

Lime and sulphur are not injurious to health, neither is iron, unless it occurs in excess. The presence of clay, sand and organic matter makes the water turbid, and the organic matter renders the water dangerous to health. All these substances should be removed by purification processes.

The processes employed for purifying water on a large scale include settling or sedimentation, filtering and chemical treatment. Settling is secured by allowing the water to remain quietly in large tanks, from

which it flows slowly from the top. Where the water contains a large quantity of solid matter two or three settling tanks may be necessary, but usually one is sufficient. The sand and gravel of the earth form a natural filter for spring water, and this sort of filter is used in water purification. The filters consist of large tanks with perforated bottoms, over which layers of gravel and sand are placed. As the water percolates through these layers the solid matter and most of the bacteria are removed. If the water contains a large proportion of lime, it may be treated with a solution of sulphate of alumina. The lime separates this compound into alumina and sulphuric acid. The acid unites with the lime or magnesia in the water and renders it harmless, and the alumina coagulates and deposits the organic matter.

Home Tests Epidemics of typhoid, diphtheria and other contagious diseases are often traced to impure water. Because water is clear, it does not follow that it is pure. A glass of the most sparkling water imaginable may contain millions of death-dealing germs, and every household should know of simple means of testing water whose purity is suspected. The following tests can be applied by any one at practically no expense:

(1) Into a vial containing about two ounces of water put a quantity of granulated sugar equal in volume to a pea or small bean. When the sugar is dissolved, cork the vial and set it in a warm place for forty-eight hours. If, when the cork is removed, the water emits a disagreeable odor, it is unsafe.

(2) Make a solution of permanganate of potash by dropping into an ounce of water a few crystals of this substance, which can be obtained at any drug store. Into a glass of the suspected water place a few drops of the solution. If the purple color disappears, the water is unsafe.

These tests are satisfactory within certain limits, but all water suspected of pollution should be tested by a chemist, any householder may have this done free of charge by sending a sample of the water to the State Department of Public Health. Water for household purposes should not be run through lead pipes, for it may attack the lead and form poisonous compounds. See LEAD POISONING.

Many cities impregnate their water with chlorine before it reaches the water mains.

WATERSHED, an elevation of land which separates the headwaters of natural drainage systems. Such a configuration of land is

sometimes called a *divide*. A watershed separating great river systems may be only a slight rise of ground, such as the divide between the waters flowing into Hudson Bay on the north and the Gulf of Mexico or the Atlantic on the south and east. Again it may be a range of lofty mountains, such as the Rockies, which separate the headwaters of streams flowing respectively into the Mississippi and the Pacific.

WATERSPOUT, a whirling column of water, extending from a cloud to the surface of a body of water, like the ocean or a lake. The presence of this column is marked by the cloud of vapor which it contains. This cloud is formed by the rapid condensation of the moisture in the atmosphere, due to expansion and rapid cooling, caused by the low pressure in the area occupied by the column. If the conditions continue a sufficient length of time, rain is produced and sometimes falls in such quantities as to constitute a small deluge. In waterspouts over the ocean, the lower part of the column may contain vapor from salt water, but usually the vapor is that of fresh water. Waterspouts are caused in the same way as whirlwinds. See WHIRLWIND.

WATERTOWN, N. Y., the county seat of Jefferson County, seventy-three miles northeast of Syracuse, on the Black River and on the New York Central Railroad. The city is the center of one of the most productive dairying regions of the country. The river furnishes extensive water power, and there are large manufactures of paper-making machinery, car brakes, clothing, plumbing supplies, thermometers, and paper specialties. The principal buildings include a Federal Building, a Masonic Temple, a Y M C A, the Flower Memorial Library, a courthouse, an armory, a county tuberculosis sanitarium, a hydroelectric power plant, a county historical museum, and a public zoo. The city has two hospitals, two orphanages and a home for the aged. Watertown was settled in 1800, was made the county seat in 1803, and was chartered as a city in 1869. It adopted the commission-manager form of government in 1920. Population, 1920, 31,285; in 1930, 32,205, a gain of 3 per cent.

WATERTOWN, S. D., the county seat of Codington County, 214 miles west of Minneapolis, on the Big Sioux River and on the Chicago & North Western, the Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific, the Great Northern and

the Minneapolis & Saint Louis railroads. It is about three miles from Lake Kampeska, a resort for camping and fishing. Watertown is an important shipping point for grain and stock. There are large grain elevators, warehouses and flouring mills. Leather goods, agricultural implements, carriages and wagons, foundry and machine shop products are manufactured. The city has a Carnegie Library and two hospitals. It is under the commission form of government. Population, 1930, 10,214.

WATERVILLE, Maine, a city in Kennebec County, seventeen miles northeast of Augusta, on the Kennebec River and on the Maine Central Railroad. There is an airport, Colby College, Coburn Classical Institute, a Carnegie Library and the historical society are notable institutions. The principal industrial establishments are run by water power from the river and include cotton mills, woolen mills, and railroad shops. The first settlement was made here about 1780, but it remained a part of Winslow until 1802. The city was chartered in 1838. Government is by mayor and council. Population, 1930, 15,454.

WATERVLIET, *water wheel*, N. Y., a city in Albany County, on the Hudson River, opposite Troy, near the terminals of the Erie and Champlain canals, and on the Delaware & Hudson railroad. A United States arsenal was established here in 1807 on a reservation of 109 acres, and has since been one of the largest permanent centers in the country for the manufacture of war materials. Other manufactures include woolen goods and iron and lumber products. The place was originally called West Troy. It was incorporated as a village in 1838 and as a city in 1897. The first Shaker settlement in America was here. Population, 1930, 16,083.

WATER WHEEL, a wheel constructed and set up for operating machinery by water power. The old style water wheels were large wooden structures, rotating upon a horizontal axis. They were constructed of two frames, from

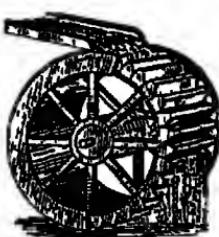
four to six feet apart, joined at their circumferences, with buckets or floats attached, as occasion required. They were known as *overshot* or *undershot* wheels, according to the method of operating, the overshot wheel receiving water at the top, and the undershot at the bottom. Each of these is described under its respective title. The *breast* wheel has the water admitted to the floats at a point horizontally opposite the axle.

A recent modification of the undershot wheel consists of a small iron wheel, with cups or buckets upon its circumference the whole enclosed in an iron box. This is often known as the *impact wheel* or, *water motor*. The water issues from a small nozzle under very high pressure, and as it strikes the box it causes the wheel to revolve with great rapidity.

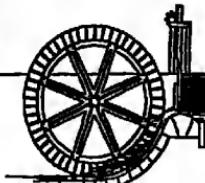
These wheels are convenient, because of their small size and the ease with which they can be placed in almost any desired position, but they are of use only in cities where the waterworks enable a high pressure to be obtained. Another form of wheel in common use is the turbine. See TURBINE WHEEL, WATER POWER.

WATERWORKS, the system of reservoirs, pumps and mains arranged for supplying a community with water for domestic use, manufacturing purposes, fire protection and street and lawn sprinkling. The water supply of large cities is usually conducted from near-by lakes or rivers, small towns obtain their supply from springs or wells. The selection of a source of supply must be made with great care, in order that it may be free from decaying animal and vegetable matter and other organic impurities. It must also be free from sewage contamination. Cool water is considered better than warm, because it is less hospitable to the propagation of life.

Where the source of supply is a long distance from the city, a reservoir is usually constructed, which is connected with the city by an aqueduct emptying into one or more smaller reservoirs, as in the New York City plant. From these reservoirs the water is distributed through mains to different



OVERSHOT WHEEL



BREAST WHEEL

portions of the city, and from the mains to consumers. When situated near a suitable source of supply, the water is pumped directly through the mains, as is the case in Cheigo, which secures its water from Lake Michigan. Small cities commonly use stand-pipes for reservoirs. These are constructed of iron or steel, and are mounted on foundations of masonry.

WATSON, wat'son, JOHN (1850-1907), well known under the pen name of Ian MacLaren, an English author and clergyman, born at Manningtree, in Essex, of Scotch parents. He graduated in 1870 at the University of Edinburgh, and studied theology at New College, Edinburgh, and at Tübingen. His first charge was at Logiealmond, in Perthshire. In 1877 he became associate pastor of Saint Matthew's Church, Glasgow, and he took charge of the Sefton Park Presbyterian Church, Liverpool, in 1880. A number of sketches of humble Scottish life, which were published in the *British Weekly*, were in 1894 collected into a little volume called *Beside the Bonnie Brier Bush*, and it is by this work that he is best known. Among his other writings are *The Days of Auld Lang Syne*, *Kate Carnegie*, *The Mind of the Master* and *A Doctor of the Old School*.

WATSON, THOMAS E (1856-1923), an American lawyer, politician and journalist, born in Columbia County, Ga. He studied at Mercer College, Macon, taught school for a time and was admitted to the bar in 1875. After practicing for a time in Thomaston, Ga., he became a member of the state legislature, and was elected to Congress in 1891 as a Populist. He was defeated in the two following elections. During his term he fought for and secured the first appropriation for rural free delivery. In 1896 he was the Populist candidate for Vice-President of the United States, and in 1904 was the candidate of the same party for President. Though he made an active campaign, he received no electoral votes. He edited, at New York, *Watson's Jeffersonian Magazine* and *The Weekly Jeffersonian*. Among his published works are *Life of Napoleon*, *Life of Thomas Jefferson*, *The Story of France*, *The Roman Catholic Hierarchy* and *The House of Hapsburg*.

WATSON, WILLIAM (1858-1935), an English poet, author of *Purple East*, containing his best sonnets; *The Year of Shame*, an indictment of England's policy in the Orient;

The Hope of the World; Studies in Poetry and Criticism, and other works.

WATT, wāt, in electricity the unit of power or measure of the rate of current, so named in recognition of James Watt, the inventor. It is equal to the pressure of one volt with a flow of one ampere per second. A thousand watts form a kilowatt, the measure of power; in most common use 746 watts equal one horse power.

WATT, wāt, JAMES (1736-1819), a Scotch engineer, celebrated for the improvements he made in the steam engine. He was born at Greenock, Scotland. Having determined to adopt the trade of making mathematical instruments, Watt went to London, at the age of eighteen, to learn the art; but ill health compelled him to return after only a year's apprenticeship. Shortly after his return he was appointed maker of mathematical instruments for the University of Glasgow. Resigning this position after a time, he worked as a civil engineer, making surveys for canals and harbors. In 1764 while repairing a Newcomen engine, Watt made experiments which resulted in the improvements that have made his name famous. In partnership with Matthew Boulton, a Birmingham manufacturer, he founded, at Soho, a factory where, in 1774, was completed the prototype, in principle, of the steam engine of to-day.

Watt was a fellow of the Royal Societies of London and Edinburgh and a member of the National Institute of France. Besides improving the steam engine, he invented or improved a variety of mechanical appliances, including a letter-copying press, a machine for reproducing sculpture and a fuel-saving furnace. See STEAM ENGINE.

WATTEAU, wāt'ō, JEAN ANTOINE (1684-1721), one of the most celebrated painters of the eighteenth century, born of humble parents, in Flanders. At eighteen he went to Paris, where after years of struggle in obscurity he became a court favorite. In time his reputation extended throughout



JAMES WATT

Europe. His name is chiefly associated with a style characterized by ideal gardens and woodlands peopled with richly costumed men and women, who disport themselves with all the arts and formal graces of the times. In 1717 Watteau became a member of the Academy. He was a favorite of Frederick the Great, and to-day the finest collection of Watteaus in the world is owned by Germany.

WATTERSON, wat'ərson, HENRY (1840-1921), for nearly fifty years one of the most influential newspaper editors in the United States. He was born at Washington, D. C., was privately educated and at the age of twenty joined the staff of the *Washington Star*. He removed to Nashville in 1861, where he edited the *Republican Banner*, and during the Civil War he served in the Confederate army. The *Republican Banner* was revived after the close of the war, and in 1867 Watterson went to Louisville, where he founded the *Journal*, later consolidated with the *Courier*, and then known as the *Courier-Journal*. He steadily refused office, but in 1876 he accepted a seat in Congress, serving with distinction, but declining re-election. From 1872 to 1892 he was a delegate at large to every Democratic national convention, and he was until his retirement from active service in 1918 a power in national politics, through his editorials in the *Courier-Journal* and his strong personality. In 1919 he published *Looking Backward*, a series of sketches in which he reviewed in a personal vein his country's history for five decades.

WATTS, wots, George Frederic (1817-1904), an English artist, famous for his portraits, but chiefly for allegorical and symbolic pictures in which he attempted to show the power of love and the ugliness of greed. Watts was born in London, and at the age of thirty he married the actress Ellen Terry. The marriage was soon annulled. Among his more important pictures are *Love and Death*, now in Washington, *Life's Illusion*, *The Widower's Seats* and *Sir Galahad*. He is one of the most subtle and powerful of portrait painters, among his successful work in this class being portraits of Tennyson, Millais, Sir Frederick Leighton, Cardinal Manning and Browning.

More than almost any other artist, he devoted himself to the artistic interests of the nation, gratuitously decorating the din-

ing hall of Lincoln's Inn and giving the best of his work to form the nucleus of the National Gallery of British Art. The principles of his art are best summed up in his own words, "The end of art must be the expression of some weighty principle of spiritual significance, the illustration of great truth."

WATTS, ISAAC (1674-1748), an English clergyman and writer, noted for his hymns. He was born at Southampton. After tutoring six years, he became minister of the Independent Church in Monk Lane, in 1702. A severe illness ended this engagement and Watts spent the remainder of his life with Sir Thomas Almey, at Theobalds. Among his works are *Divine and Moral Songs for Children*, *Hymns and Spiritual Songs*, *Psalms of David Imitated and Horae Lyricæ*, the last three containing nearly five hundred hymns and versions. "When I survey the wonderous cross" is said to be Watts's finest hymn, and with Ken's *Morning Hymn*, Charles Wesley's "Hark, the Herald Angels" and Toplady's "Rock of Ages," it stands at the head of all hymns in the English language.

WAUKEGAN, waw le'gon, Ill., the county seat of Lake County, thirty-five miles north of Chicago, on Lake Michigan and on the Chicago & North Western and the Elgin, Joliet & Eastern railroads. It has an excellent harbor, with boat service to Chicago, Milwaukee and other lake ports, and is the center of a large trade in farm and dairy products. Industrial establishments include steel and wire works, brass and iron foundries, leather factories, and manufacturers of locks, boats, doors, motors, pharmacy supplies, and ladies' garments. Notable features are the government harbor and pier, Federal building, courthouse, Carnegie Library and Masonic Temple. Sheridan Road, an automobile boulevard extending from Chicago to Milwaukee, passes through Waukegan, on this road just north of the city is the Bowen Country Club, the summer camp of Hull House, Chicago. The Great Lakes Naval Training Station is located three miles south of the city.

Waukegan was settled by New England and Southern frontiersmen interested in establishing a shipping point for grain. It is said to be older than Chicago, and at one time it promised to surpass the younger settlement. It was incorporated as a village

in 1849, became a city in 1859. Commission government was succeeded by the mayor-council system. Population, 1920, 19,226, in 1930, 33,479, a gain of 74 per cent.

WAUKESHA, *wau'ke shaw*, Wis., the county seat of Waukesha County, seventeen miles west of Milwaukee, on the Fox River and on the Chicago, Milwaukee, Saint Paul & Pacific, the Chicago & North Western and the "Soo Line" railroads. There is an airport. It has numerous mineral springs, and its principal industry is the bottling and shipping of water. There are also structural steel works, steel-bridge and malleable-iron works, plow and motor works and canning factories. Carroll College and the state industrial school for boys are located here. Other features of interest are the Rest Haven sanitarium, the courthouse, a public library and three parks. The place was settled in 1836, and incorporated in 1848. Population, 1920, 12,558, in 1930, 17,176.

WAUSAU, *wau'saw*, Wis., the county seat of Marathon County, 180 miles northwest of Milwaukee, on the Wisconsin River and on the Chicago & North Western and the Chicago, Milwaukee, Saint Paul & Pacific railroads. It is surrounded by a lumbering, agricultural and dairying section, which also has extensive granite quarries. The river furnishes good water power, and the city maintains sawmills, ash and blind factories, machine shops, box and veneer factories, also paper and flour mills. A county training school for teachers, a county school of agriculture and domestic science, an asylum for the insane and a tuberculous sanitarium are located here. The city also has a public library, a hospital, a fine courthouse and a city hall. The place was settled in 1842, and was at first known as Big Bull Falls. It was chartered as a city in 1872. Population, 1920, 18,951, in 1930, 23,755.

WAVES, *wāvz*, disturbances in matter, which result in carrying force from point to point, often to a great distance. The most familiar visible waves are those produced by the wind on the surface of a body of water. Invisibl^e waves are those minute vibrations produced within a body, by striking it or by some other means of agitation. These waves are manifest through their results, as in sound, heat and light.

When waves are produced by the disturbance of a small quantity of liquid, as by throwing a pebble into a pool, they appear

to advance from the point where the pebble strikes, in widening, concentric circles, the height of the wave decreasing gradually as the circle enlarges. There is, however, no progressive motion of the liquid itself, as may be seen by watching a body floating on its surface. This is true of large, as well as small, waves, and the waves of the ocean, which sometimes reach a height of forty feet or more, do not cause the water to move forward. Breakers are caused by the friction of the water on the bottom of the sea, which retards the motion at the wave head and causes the crest to break over it. They never occur in deep water. See SOUND.

WAX, a solid, fatty substance derived from animal and vegetable sources. A by-product of petroleum, paraffin, is a similar product, having a number of uses. The chief kinds of animal wax are beeswax and spermaceti. The first is secreted by bees to build their cells. It is used in the arts for modeling, and in making ointments, plasters and candles. Spermaceti, a constituent of whale oil, is used for making toilet creams and candles. A wax secreted by the pores of sheep and extracted from the cut wool is used in dressing leather. Myrtle wax, palm wax and Japanese wax are of vegetable origin. From myrtle wax bayberry candles are made. Vegetable wax is the basis of the finest Japanese lacquers.

WAX MYRTLE, or **WAX TREE**. See CANDLE-BERRY.

WAXWING, a handsome singing bird, distinguished by its high, pointed crest, yellow band across the end of the tail and red spots on the wings, which have the appearance of sealing wax. The body plumage is reddish-brown above, yellowish underneath. The cedar waxwing is found in nearly every part of

North America, and may be seen in summer as far north as Southern Alaska. It feeds on insects,



WAXWING

and fruits, and nests in trees. The eggs are pearly-colored, with black specks. The Bobolink warbler, a familiar bird in both eastern and western hemispheres, also migrates to high latitudes in the nesting season, traveling, like the cedar, in small flocks.

WAY BILL See BILL OF LADING

WAYCROSS, Ga., the county seat of Ware County, ninety-seven miles southwest of Satilla River and on the Atlantic Coast Line, the Waycross & Southern, the Waycross & Western and the Atlanta & Birmingham railroads. It is the center of a fertile section, in which are grown cotton, fruit, live stock, peaches and sugar cane. There is abundant timber, and the city has large saw and planing mills. Other industrial establishments are railway shops, an overall factory, a packing plant, a turpentine plant, a cotton gin, a cold storage plant and a fire-proof warehouse for cotton. There are a Federal building, a courthouse, a Y M C A., Kings Daughters' Hospital and Baptist Institute. Population, 1920, 18,068; in 1930, 15,510, a loss of 14 per cent.

WAYNE, ANTHONY (1745-1796), an American revolutionary leader, called "Mad Anthony" Wayne because of his brilliant bayonet charge on Stony Point in 1779, the most daring feat of the Revolutionary War. He was born at Easton, Pa., and was prominent in the patriotic movements before the Revolution. He served in the Pennsylvania legislature and in 1775, when the war broke out, he joined the army, was colonel of a volunteer regiment, and early in 1776 accompanied the expedition to Canada. For some time he was in command of a fort at Ticonderoga, and he afterward took part in the battles of Brandywine, Germantown and Monmouth. He captured Stony Point with a light infantry corps and became a popular idol; this was one of the romantic episodes of the war.

After the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown, at which he was present, he served for a time in Georgia and South Carolina. After the close of the war he held a number of civil offices in Pennsylvania and then removed to Georgia. In 1791 and 1792 he represented Georgia in Congress. In 1792 he was made general in chief of the United States army and was given command of an expedition against the Indians in the West. He defeated them at Fallen Timbers in August, 1794, and he concluded with them

the Treaty of Greenville, by which the United States gained a large tract of land.

WEALTH, with, a term used in economics to signify all material goods that have value. There are three essential qualities for objects classified as having value, they must be useful, must be limited in supply, and must be transferable. Gold, for example, comes under the category of wealth, for it has utility, it is produced in limited quantity, and it can be taken from one place to another. Health, while it is of priceless value to the possessor, is not wealth, for it is not a material thing. The possession of health is an aid to one who seeks to acquire wealth, but is not wealth itself, according to the terminology of economics. The same statement can be made of intelligence, physical strength, skill, education, and other intangible possessions that are in themselves of great value to man.

Circumstances alter the relative value of objects classified as wealth. On a desert island a shipwrecked sailor with a belt of money would consider food and drink of far greater value than his gold. If he were rescued and taken to a country where food was plentiful his money would be again classified as wealth. The four phases of wealth—production, exchange, distribution and consumption—are fundamental in the consideration of the economic structure of the world.

Related Articles Consult the following titles for additional information.

Capital	Profit Sharing
Consumption	Socialism
Credit	Supply and
Economics	Demand
Money	Wages

WEASEL, *we'sel*, a small, carnivorous animal, a native of almost all the temperate and cold parts of the northern hemisphere. The body is extremely slender, the head small and flattened, the neck long and the legs short. It preys upon mice, birds and other small animals and is very destructive to poultry. The weasel is usually nocturnal in its habits. It is a fine hunter, having a very keen scent and sharp sight, and, being unwearying in pursuit of its victim, it often wears to exhaustion animals larger than itself. Several species are common in the United States, and others are found in most parts of the temperate zones. The long-tailed, or New York, weasel is one of the most familiar species in North America. It is dark brown above and white beneath, and in winter in cold climates

it turns pure white, except for the tip of the tail, which is black.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

Terrene
Barrel

Polet
Sable



WEATHER BUREAU, *weath'er bu'reo*, a government bureau maintained by all civilized countries for the purpose of studying weather conditions and giving useful information thereon to the people. Mark Twain once said, "People have been talking about the weather for years, but nothing has ever been done about it." As a matter of fact, considerable has been done about it by the weather bureaus. Nobody can ward off a storm sure to be destructive to crops, but the approach of such a storm can be foretold and precautions may be taken to lessen its menace. Warnings of floods, frost predictions, advice on rainfall, recommendations as to irrigation needs—these and many other practical suggestions come from the weather bureaus and help to moderate the tyranny of the weather, which it must be conceded, is a force for good and for ill in the life of nearly every person. The United States Weather Bureau is typical of those of other countries, and in efficiency and in the practical service it renders it is one of the best in the world.

United States Weather Bureau. Previous to the Civil War several attempts to maintain a systematic weather service were made, but on the breaking out of that conflict all these were abandoned. The United States Weather Bureau was organized in 1870 as a division of the signal service in the War Department. The organization was under the supervision of General Albert J. Myer, chief signal officer of the army, and it was adopted by Congress as a national service. Under General Myer's management, signal stations, as they were then called, were established throughout the country and were under the direction of a corps of trained weather observers. In 1891 the weather department of the signal service was made a bureau of the Department of Agriculture.

The Weather Bureau is organized into a

number of divisions, each of which carries on its special line of work. The most important of these are the following:

(1) **The Forecast Division,** which receives twice a day reports from stations in the United States, the West Indies, Europe, Asia, Alaska and Hawaii, and makes charts showing the conditions embodied in these reports. These charts are the regular weather maps of the bureau and include forecasts for the entire northern hemisphere. Their predictions are for twenty-four or forty-eight hours.

(2) **The Division of River and Flood Service,** which obtains information concerning the amount of rainfall, ice and snow in the basins of the principal rivers, whether navigable or not. The information which this division gives is for facilitating commerce and especially for protecting river valleys from floods, of which it aims to give ample warning.

(3) **Aviation Service.** Information which is provided especially for airplane pilots has been a most important factor in making travel by air comparatively safe. Local conditions are sent by radio to all fliers, but the Weather Bureau by frequent reports, day and night, keep pilots informed of conditions far ahead on lines of flight. Many of these reporters are also air-line employees.

(4) **The Division of Climate and Crops.** This division maintains a staff of voluntary observers, who give reports of the temperature, rainfall and other important data pertaining to the welfare and growth of crops in different parts of the country. This information is published in weekly and monthly crop bulletins, which are regarded as the highest authority on crop conditions of the country and are of the greatest benefit to agricultural interests.

(5) **Other Divisions.** These include divisions which have charge of examining and testing all instruments used, a division of records and divisions of telegraphy, radio, publications, and supplies.

Observing Stations. There are over 200 regular meteorological stations in the United States. Each of these is in charge of trained observers and is equipped with a full set

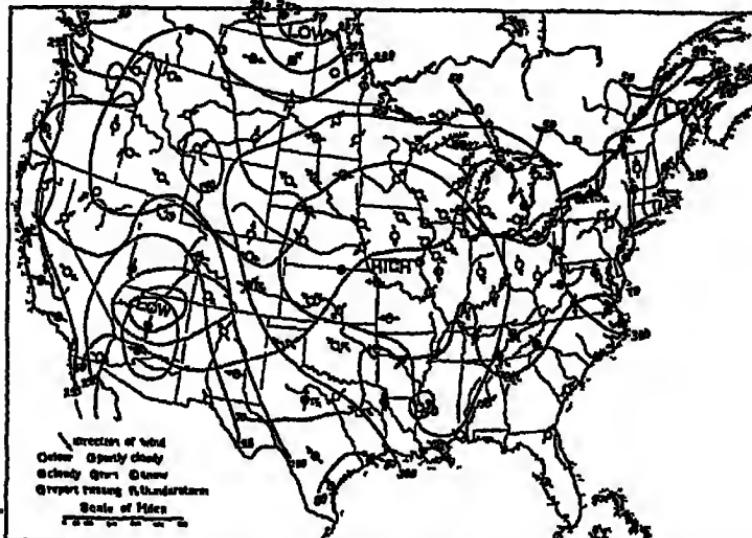


FIG. 1

of instruments. These observations are taken at 7:45 A. M. and 7:45 P. M. Washington time, and the results are telegraphed to the central station of the district and to the office at Washington, from each of which maps are issued and reports transmitted to the country. These stations and numerous

other stations indicate the local weather conditions by the display of signals. A white flag (1 in Fig 1) indicates fair weather. A flag with the upper half white and the lower half blue (2 in Fig 1) indicates local rain or snow. A full blue flag (3 in Fig 1) indicates general rain or snow. A triangular blue flag (4 in Fig. 1) indicates

triangle above indicates storm with wind from the northeast; and with the dark triangle below, storm with a wind from the southeast (see Fig 3). The hurricane warning consists of two red flags with black centers, one above the other (see Fig 4). Forecasts are also displayed in post offices and other public places, and in some sections of



UNITED STATES WEATHER MAP

change of temperature. When placed below another flag it indicates colder, and when placed above, warmer. A white flag with a black square in the center (5 in Fig 1) indicates a cold wave, which means a drop in temperature of from 15° to 20°.

The direction of winds is indicated by triangular flags, which are generally used in connection with storm warnings.

The warning flag is red, with a black square in the center. When this is displayed with a triangular white flag above it, it indicates a storm with wind from the northwest. With the white flag below, it indicates a wind from the southwest (see Fig 2).



FIG 2

the country they are given by a series of signals by the whistles of locomotives.

Weather Charts Through telegraphic reports received from all parts of the country



FIG 3



FIG 4

twice each day the United States Weather Bureau constructs, twice daily, weather charts showing areas of high and low barometric pressure, the former generally indicating centers of storm disturbance, the general temperature of the different sections of the country, those of equal temperatures being connected by lines called isotherms.

the direction of winds and the condition of the atmosphere, the latter being denoted as cloudy, partly cloudy or clear, and including presence of rain, snow or thunderstorms. By comparing the map under construction with previous maps and with the latest reports from the various stations, the forecaster is able to tell in what directions the areas of low pressure are moving, and at what speed, and can thus predict, with reasonable certainty, changes of weather in all parts of the country. As to changes in temperature and the velocity and the direction of winds, information furnished by the bureau is almost never far wrong, but so many influences affect the condition of the atmosphere that it is more difficult to predict



SOCIABLE WEAVER BIRD'S NEST

changes in this respect. The weather map shown here is an exact copy of one furnished by the government.

Canadian Bureau. In the Dominion of Canada the Meteorological Service, a division of the Department of Marine and Fisheries, perform the same tasks as the American Weather Bureau. The superintendent of the service has his headquarters at Toronto, Ont., and acts also as director of the Toronto Magnetic Observatory.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

Climate	Iroquois	Rainbow
Cyclone	Irishman	Snow
Frost	Linen	Storms
Hail	Meteorology	Tornado
Humidity	Rain	Wind
Hurricane		

WEAVER, we'ver, JAMES BAIRD (1833-1912), an American political leader, born at Dayton, Ohio. He graduated from the law school of Ohio University in 1854, served in the Civil War and was brevetted brigadier-general at its close. He removed to Iowa,

entered journalism, as editor of the Iowa Tribune, at Des Moines, and became a member of Congress in 1879 and again in 1885. In 1880 he was made the Greenback candidate for President of the United States and in 1892 was the candidate of the People's or Populist party, receiving twenty-two electoral votes.

WEAVER, we'ver, BIRD, a small bird resembling the finch, with pointed wings, a



WEAVER BIRD

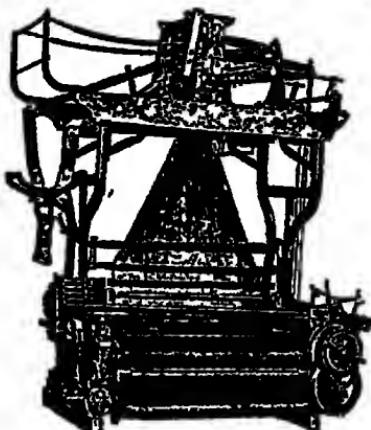
sharp, conical bill and unusually long claws. The name has reference to the bird's manner of building its nest, which is a wonderful structure of woven vegetable substances. The form and workmanship of the nests vary with the several species. The yellow weaver, or *baya*, of India, builds a long, bottlelike nest, and hangs it from a slender branch of tree or shrub, often over the water, where it is impossible for anything but a bird to enter. The sociable weaver birds build a large domed-shaped structure, or roof, in the forks of branches, and underneath this common roof many families build their nests, each with a separate entrance. While all members of the community work on the roof, each pair works alone on its own nest. See *BAYA*.



BAYA'S NEST

WEAVING, we'veng, the art of making cloth by means of a loom, from threads or yarn. It is not known when weaving was first practiced, but it is certain that it is one of the earliest of the arts, and it seems probable

that hand looms were invented independently by several of the ancient nations. The Greeks and Romans brought the weaving art to a high degree of perfection. Among modern countries Italy was the first to acquire fame for the manufacture of woolen



JACQUARD LOOM

and cotton cloths. France, England, Germany and the United States later developed extensive weaving industries. Since the fibers of wool are much more easily worked than are those of cotton or flax, woolen cloth has always been made among the more primitive peoples before they attempted fabrics of linen or cotton.

In weaving, two sets of threads are necessary, one running lengthwise of the cloth, and called the *warp*, the other running crosswise, and called the *weft*, or *woof*. The threads of the warp are arranged on the loom by being wound on a *yarn beam*, at the back, and stretched evenly to the front, where they are fastened to another beam, upon which the cloth is to be wound. In passing from one beam to the other, the warp threads are laid through the *heckles* and also through a *comb* on the *batten*. In laying the warp, every other thread passes through one heckle, and the alternate thread passes through the other. The weft is wound upon bobbins, which are placed in the shuttle, by means of which the weft is laid in position. Weaving by hand loom includes the following steps: (1) Pressing a treadle, which is connected with the heckles by a cord that passes over a pulley on the top of the loom. This spreads the

threads of the weft, raising one-half and lowering the others, so that they form an angle called the *shed*; (2) Throwing the shuttle across the warp and thus laying the thread of the weft in position; (3) Striking this thread with the batten, so as to drive it close up against the one previously laid; (4) Springing down the opposite treadle and thus preparing the web for the next thread of the weft.

Weaving in these times is almost exclusively done by power looms, operated by steam or electricity. Simple as the hand loom is, it contains the elements of all modern looms. The complexity of the pattern may be increased by placing more than two frames in the heckle and dividing the weft into more parts, also by inventions which raise certain threads in the warp at one time and certain others at another. An invention known as the *Jacquard* loom operates upon this plan. Any number of cords can be used, so that a pattern of any degree of complexity is possible, and since all cords are tied together in the form of an endless chain, the pattern may be repeated indefinitely.

WEBB CITY, Mo., a city in Jasper County, five miles northeast of Joplin, on the Frisco and the Missouri Pacific railroads. It is the center of the zinc and lead mining district of Southwestern Missouri. Mining plants in the vicinity number about two hundred, and there are in addition machine shops, foundries, a cement block factory and a brick and tile plant. The city has a Federal building, a hospital and a public library. It was settled in 1873 and incorporated in 1878. Population, 1920, 7,897; in 1930, 6,876, a loss of 12 per cent.

WEBER, KARL MARIA FRIBERG ERNST von (1786-1826), a German composer, born at Husum in Holstein. His father was a musician and gave him a good musical education. At the age of fourteen he wrote an opera, and in 1803 he visited Vienna, where he became acquainted with Haydn. He procured a musical directorship in Breslau, on which he entered in 1804, leaving it only to accept, successively, several more important positions. In 1820, at Berlin, he produced *Der Freischütz*, the most celebrated of his compositions. It was performed in London and Paris two years later. In 1822 *Euryanthe* was brought out, and in 1826 Weber visited London to superintend the production of *Oberon*, which he had com-

posed for Covent Garden Theater. Shortly after its enthusiastic reception, the composer died in London. Besides the operas mentioned, Weber wrote a large number of works for the piano, notably the *Invitation to the Dance* and the *E flat major Polonaise*. He was the forerunner, in style, of Wagner, whom he strongly influenced.

WEBSTER, DANIEL (1782-1852), American orator and statesman, born in the township of Salisbury, N. H. His father was a backwoods farmer, who had previously been a hunter and soldier, and Daniel owed his first education to his mother. Later, in the intervals of farm work, he attended village school, and when he had reached the age of fifteen, his father made some generous sacrifices to send him to Dartmouth College, where he remained four years. After studying privately and in a Boston law office, he entered the law in 1804, settled at Portsmouth, N. H., and prospered.

Webster at first took little interest in politics, but in 1812, having already established a commanding reputation, he was elected to Congress by the anti-war party. He was placed on the committee of foreign affairs, and his maiden speech, delivered on June 10, 1813, upon the Berlin and Milan decrees, took the House and country by surprise by its display of rhetorical power and wealth of historical knowledge. His subsequent speeches on the increase of the navy, which he warmly recommended, and the repeal of the embargo, placed him in the first rank of debaters.

In 1816 Webster retired for a time from political life, removing to Boston to devote himself to his profession. For nearly seven years afterward, with a single exception, he filled no public office, but as an advocate and counsellor achieved a preeminent position in the American bar. His strong powers were displayed in arguing points of constitutional law, and his achievements in this direction drew upon him the attention of the whole country. In 1820, on the celebration of the bicentenary of the landing of the Pilgrim Fathers, he delivered an oration which added greatly to his fame as an orator,



DANIEL WEBSTER

and he continued to gain in public esteem through other great addresses, notably those at the laying of the cornerstone of Bunker Hill Monument in 1825 and at the memorial service for Adams and Jefferson in 1826.

In 1822 he was elected to Congress, and was reelected in 1824 and 1826. At the end of his last term he was chosen Senator for Massachusetts. In January, 1830, he delivered a remarkable speech in favor of the nationalist view of the Constitution, in reply to a speech by Robert T. Hayne of South Carolina. The address created a sensation throughout the Union and probably was more widely circulated throughout the country than any other in previous American history. Webster was strongly opposed to the nullification movement of Calhoun and the South Carolina school, and his eloquence in support of Jackson's energetic measures did much to prevent secession. In 1836 he was an unsuccessful candidate for the Presidency, and from 1841 to 1843 was Secretary of State under Harrison and Tyler. The chief event of this period was the negotiation of the famous Webster-Ashburton treaty with England, which was equally advantageous and honorable to both parties.

Webster generously supported Clay's candidacy for the Presidency in 1844, and was himself an unsuccessful aspirant for the Whig nomination in 1848. In 1845 he was reelected to the Senate, and in the struggle over the admission of Texas and California he strongly favored the Northern, or anti-slavery, side. Afterward, however, when public excitement had reached a dangerous height, he supported a policy of compromise, and March 7, 1850, he made a speech in favor of obedience to the Fugitive Slave Law. The same year he was appointed a second time Secretary of State, which office he held till his death.

Webster's guiding principle in politics was the preservation of the Union, for which he was ready to make all sacrifices, opposing the nullifiers, on the one hand, and the abolitionists, on the other. One of his best remembered utterances is that from the Reply to Hayne, ending with the exclamation, "Liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable!"

Related Articles Consult the following titles for additional information:
 Calhoun John C. Webster-Ashburton
 Clay Henry Treat
 Nullification

WEBSTER, HENRY KETCHELL (1875-1932), an American novelist, born at Evans-ton, Ill., and educated at Hamilton College. After graduation he taught English for a year in Union College and then began the publication of stories that soon gained for him a place as one of the most popular of American story writers. Among the stories that first brought him into prominence were *The Short Lane War*, *Comrade John* and *Calewoi X*, all written in collaboration with Samuel Mervin. Novels of which he is exclusively the author are *The Story of a Corner in Land*, *Roger Drake*, *The Sly Men*, *The Ghost Girl*, *The Butterfly*, *Real Adventure*, *The Thoroughbreds*, *The Painted Scene* and *An American Family*.

WEBSTER, NOAH (1785-1843), an American lexicographer, author of the original *Webster's Dictionary* and of *Webster's Spelling Book*. He was educated at Yale and prepared for the law, but gave it up for teaching. His experience in schools led to the composition of his *Spelling Book*, which was published in 1784, and of which it is said that 62,000,000 copies have been sold. About 1807 he began work upon his *American Dictionary of the English Language*. In preparing this work he visited England and worked for some months at Cambridge. The first edition of the dictionary was finished in 1828, and a second edition was published by Webster in 1840. This work was the basis of the standard *Webster's International Dictionary*.

WEBSTER-ASHBURTON TREATY, a treaty concluded at Washington in 1842 by Daniel Webster, then Secretary of State, and Lord Ashburton, minister of Great Britain to the United States. It defined the north-eastern boundary between the United States and Canada, which for years had been a source of irritation between the two countries.

WEDGE, *wēj*, one of the so-called mechanical powers used in the construction of machines, formed of a combination of two inclined planes. Wedges of wood or metal are used for splitting various substances or for exerting strong pressure in a small space. The axe, with its thin and its broad edge, is one application of the principle of the wedge. See MECHANICAL POWERS.

WEDGWOOD, *wēj'wūd*, **WARE**, a superior kind of glazed pottery, capable of taking the most brilliant and delicate colors. It is

usually decorated with classic designs, often in relief upon a solid ground. It is used not only for the table, but also for ornament; and, owing to its hardness and property of resisting the action of all corrosive substances, it is commonly used for mortars in laboratories. The ware was named after the inventor, Jonah Wedgwood. See POTTERY.

JOSUAH WEDGWOOD (1730-1795), one of the greatest of English potters, was born at Burslem, of a family of successful potters. At the age of eleven he began making pottery on a wheel. The loss of a leg compelled him to give up this work, and he afterwards became head of his own pottery works and the most famous of English potters. Wedgwood made many improvements in the manufacture of earthenwares, and all subsequent work in this field has reflected his powerful influence.

WEDNESDAY, *wēn'zday* (Woden's day), the fourth day of the week.

WHEED, THRUETOW (1797-1882), an American journalist, born at Care, N.Y. At the age of twelve he began to learn the printer's trade in Catskill, N.Y., and ten years later he was editing. He founded the Onondaga County Republican, and in 1824 became editor and owner of the Rochester Telegraph. He was elected to the legislature in 1826, and at the close of his second term he established the Albany Evening Journal, a Whig paper, which he edited for thirty-three years. During the Civil War, at the instance of President Lincoln, he was sent to Europe on a semi-official mission, and he did much to remove the misapprehensions as to the war, and to induce foreign governments to refrain from interference. In 1867 he became editor of the New York Commercial Advertiser, which position he resigned on account of failing health. He was the author of *Letters from Europe* and *the West Indies* and an *Autobiography*.

WEEDS, a term applied to plants that are out of place—not wanted, and in most cases very troublesome. Many plants when grown and cultivated in gardens, as the gold-ernod and the dandelion, are classed as flowers, while the same plants, running wild in uncultivated ground, are considered as weeds. The chief ways in which weeds are injurious are—(1) They increase the labor necessary to cultivate the soil, (2) they take up food from the soil, which should go to useful plants, (3) their foliage smothers the young

plants; (4) they sometimes are poisonous to cattle. Care should be taken to eradicate them as soon as they begin to grow. There are various ways to prevent their growth, different weeds requiring different methods. Planting of pure seed, diligent tillage of the soil, rotation of crops, cultivation of all open land with crops, are some of the means used. Some weeds while young can be destroyed without injury to the crop, by spraying the field with certain chemicals, called herbicides. Weeds are often of service to a farmer, in aiding him to know the needs of his land, since many kinds grow only where the conditions are peculiarly adapted to them.

See HERBICIDES

Related Articles. On page 517, in the article BOTANY, is a further discussion of the subject of weeds. For descriptions of the common weeds, consult the following titles:

Abulion	Dandelion	Mullein
Arrimony	Dock	Pigweed
Bindweed	Feverfew	Plantain
Botany	Fleabane	Ragweed
Burdock	Goosefoot	Sand Bur
Canada Thistle	Gromwell	Saw Thistle
Cocklebur	Indian Mallow	Stramonium
Cow Parsnip	Milkweed	Thistle

WEEK, a period of seven days, one of the conventional divisions of time, the origin of which is doubtful. Among the ancient nations who adopted the week as a division of time, are the Chinese, the Hindus, the Egyptians, the Chaldeans, the Jews, the Persians and the Peruvians. In some cases the name has been applied to cycles of time other than that of seven days. The nations with whom the weekly cycle has been traced with certainty to the greatest antiquity are the Egyptians and the Hebrews. The use of the week was introduced into the Roman Empire from Egypt, about the first or second century of the Christian Era, and it had been recognized independently of Christianity before the Emperor Constantine confirmed it by joining the observance of the Christian Sabbath.

WEEVIL, *we'v'l*, the name applied to a group of very small beetles, most of which have long snouts, slightly curved downward. They are very destructive to the products of agriculture, some of them injuring the plants, others ruining the fruit or seed. With the long snout the insects of some species bore into nuts, grain or fruit and eat out the interior. Sometimes they deposit their eggs in the fruit, or seeds, so that the larvae will have food when hatched. In this way weevils often hatch out in meal, flour, rice and such food stuffs, spoiling them.

The boll weevil, which attacks the cotton boll, is one of the worst pests in the United States, having caused enormous losses to Southern farmers. It is a grayish weed one-fourth of an inch long. It has torpid in winter, and when the cotton comes up feeds on the leaves and blossoms. The eggs are deposited in the cotton boll, which the maggots destroy. There are four or more generations each summer. The alfalfa weevil is another species of considerable economic importance, and the United States Department of Agriculture has employed stringent measures to have it checked. Peas and beans are among other crops subject to weevil attack. The insects breed in the growing pod and also in stored beans and peas. When infested, the beans float in water and should not be planted. See BOLL WEEVIL.

WEIGHING, way'ing, SCALE, a mechanical contrivance for ascertaining the weights of substances. The simplest form of the weighing machine is the balance formerly used by grocers. It consists of a horizontal beam pivoted in the middle and having at one end a deep pan, in which was placed the article to be weighed, and at the other a horizontal disk. Pieces of iron of graduated size and ranging in weight from an ounce or less to several pounds were used on the disk to balance the article to be weighed. A modification of this scale is the unequal beam balance, based on the principle of the lever. The horizontal beam is not pivoted at the middle point, but near one end; the weight to be determined is placed upon the shorter end and is balanced by a much smaller weight at the long end.

The platform scale is a typical example. It consists of a hinged platform, set above a stationary platform, which sinks under a weight and presses upon a lever underneath. The lever is connected with a vertical rod attached to the short end of the horizontally-pivoted beam already described. The longer end, or lever, of the beam is marked off in a graduated scale. The article to be weighed is placed on the platform, which sinks under the weight, pressing upon the lever, which conveys the pull to the vertical rod connected with the beam. The weight on the long end of the beam is moved along the scale until it balances with the weight on the platform. The weight of the article on the platform is indicated by the mark in pounds at which the weight balances. A

weight of one pound on the lever may be made to balance with ten, a hundred or even a thousand pounds or more on the platform. Some of these scales are even built to weigh heavy guns and locomotives.

Among the most recent inventions of scales is a complicated device which not only weighs the goods but also computes the price of fractions of a pound.

WEIGHT, *way*, the measure of the force by which any body or a given portion of any substance gravitates or is attracted to the earth; in a more popular sense, the quantity of matter in a body, as estimated by the balance, or expressed numerically with reference to some standard unit. In determining weight in cases where very great precision is desired, due account must be taken of temperature, elevation and latitude. Hence, in fixing exact standards of weights, a particular temperature and pressure of air must be specified, thus the standard brass pound of Great Britain is directed to be used when the Fahrenheit thermometer stands at 62° and the barometer at thirty inches. See, also, GRAVITATION, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, METRIC SYSTEM.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, the standards used in measuring quantities. Most of the common standard units have been chosen arbitrarily, though efforts have always been made to have the units conform to some natural rule. Evidences of this fact remain in the names of both ancient and modern units, such as the cubit of the Egyptians and Hebrews, which was the length of the forearm, and the *foot* of the Greeks, which was the length of a man's foot.

The so-called English system of weights and measures, used in the British Empire and the United States, dates from a law passed in 1266 in England, which provided that an English penny should equal in weight 32 wheat corns, taken from the middle of the ear, that 20 pence should make an ounce, 12 ounces a pound, 8 pounds a gallon of wine and 8 gallons of wine a London bushel. Before this time, two pound units had grown up, one, the *Troy* pound, introduced into England by William the Conqueror, weighed considerably less than that before used in England, and its introduction created such dissatisfaction that an average pound of sixteen ounces, now known as the avoirdupois pound, was made the standard unit

for articles in common trade, while the *Troy* pound, of twelve ounces, was retained as the unit of weight for gold, silver, gems and apothecaries' supplies.

The units of length, capacity, weight and volume have often varied and are not yet entirely uniform, but the common standards of the English system are as follows. Of length, the *yard*, consisting of 3 feet, each foot containing 12 inches, 5½ yards equal 1 rod, 320 rods equal 1 mile. In England, the rod is called a *pole*, or a *perch*. The units of square and cubic measure are respectively the squares and cubes of the linear units, as *square yard*, *cubic inch*, etc. The *acre*, used in the measurement of land, contains 160 square rods. A *square mile* equals 640 acres.

There are two sets of measures of capacity, one for liquids and one for solids. The unit for liquid measure is the *gallon* of 231



THE WORLD'S WEIGHTS AND MEASURES
Showing the commanding position of the English system

- (A) English weights and measures established and fundamental
- (B) English basis for linear measurements
- (C) Local and English prevail and are closely identical. Metric also used
- (D) Metric, local and English
- (E) Metric prevails, with mixture of old and English

cubic inches. The quart, one-fourth of a gallon, contains 57 75 cubic inches. The quart is divided into two pints and the pint into four gills. Standard gallon measures are maintained in England, Canada and the United States. The quart in dry measure contains 67 2 cubic inches, eight quarts make one peck and four pecks one bushel. The standard bushel contains 2130 42 cubic inches. The metric system (which see) is used in Europe.

There are numerous terms in use in special occupations, such as the *hand*, a unit used in measuring the height of an animal, and equivalent to about 4 inches; the *fathom* (2 yards), used in measuring the depth of water, the *knot*, or geographical mile,

(GROSS 27 feet), used to designate distance at sea, the chain (4 rods), used in surveying, the furlong (10 chains); a fust (1/16 of a chain), the ell (33 feet), the barrel (31½ gallons); the hogshead (2 barrels). In England the barrel equals 36 gallons.

Fixing and keeping standards of the different units, weights and measures is in the hands of the governments of the respective nations. The work requires the greatest skill and care. In the United States these standards are prepared and kept by the United States National Bureau of Standards. In 1836 the British government sent to the United States two standards of length, which are still preserved. The same year the Treasury Department sent a complete set of weights and measures to the governor of each state. These sets are kept at the capitals of the respective states, and may be used for testing weights or measures whose accuracy is in doubt. Most states appoint inspectors whose duty it is to see that false weights and measures are not used by tradesmen.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

Acre	Furrow	Mile
Apothecaries'	Gallon	Ohm
Weight	Gram	Ounce
Avoirdupois	Hundredweight	Pound
Barrel	Kilogram	Quart
Bushel	Kilogrammeter	Scraple
Cards	Kilometer	Ton
Centimeter	Foot	Troy Weight
Chain	Knot	Volt
Cubic Measure	League	Watt
Draught	Liter	Weighing
Fathom	Meter	Scale
Foot	Meter	

WEIMAR, *vī'mär*, GERMANY, a quaint old city on the River Ilm, about fifty miles west-southwest of Leipzig, in the former grand duchy of Saxe-Weimar. The place is decorated in a peculiarly interesting way with the new and with the old Germany. Here, in February, 1919, the first national assembly of the German republic met to establish a government based on democracy. Here, in July of the same year, the Treaty of Versailles was ratified.

Weimar is famous, too, for its association with the classical epoch of German literature, and it has been called the "German Athens." Goethe, Schiller, Wieland and Herder lived here, and Goethe and Schiller are buried in the cemetery in the southern part of the town. Goethe's house is now the Goethe National Museum, and Schiller's home is also the property of the city and is open to the public. The Goethe-Schiller mon-

ument in bronze is in front of the famous court theater, in which the national assembly held its memorable sessions. Another striking building is the grand ducal palace, which was partially constructed under the supervision of Goethe. Weimar has an excellent school system, including an art school, an industrial school, a music school and other special schools. Stoves, straw hats, leather and cloth are manufactured, and the book trade is considerable. Population, 1933, 51,573.

WELDING, the process of uniting two pieces of a substance when softened by heat. In the arts the term is restricted to joining such metals as iron and platinum, though glass and several other substances can be welded as readily as these metals. The simplest method of welding iron is that employed in the ordinary blacksmith shop. The smith hammers the ends of the bars to be welded into a wedge-like form, and heats them white hot, and just as they begin to soften, he covers them with borax or some other flux, to prevent the formation of oxide. The hot ends are then laid together and hammered, the soft surfaces unite, and the joint formed is usually as strong as any other portion of the bar. In most manufacturers, electricity is now very generally used for welding, a current of sufficient power to heat and soften the metals being employed.

WELFARE ISLAND, formerly Blockwell's Island, in East River, New York City.

WELLAND, ONT., the county town of Welland County, on the Welland Canal and on the Canadian National, the Michigan Central, the Wabash, the Pere Marquette, the Canadian Pacific and other railways. Welland has become a railroad and manufacturing center. Especially important are iron and steel products of various kinds, agricultural implements, cordage, cotton goods, chemicals, stoves, tires, concrete and furniture. There is an abundance of water power and natural gas in the vicinity. Welland has a wireless station, two government docks, a court house, a registry office and a park. Population, 1931, 10,709.

WELLAND CANAL, a canal on the Canadian side of the Niagara River, connecting Lakes Erie and Ontario, and constituting an important link in the chain of canals extending from Lake Superior to Montreal. It was opened in 1833 and in 1871 was considerably enlarged. It is 26½ miles long, 100 feet wide and fifteen feet deep.

The growth of commercial transportation on the great lakes, and the increased size of ships, taxed the capacity of this, the only canal connection between the upper lakes and the ocean. As early as 1913 engineers reported a plan for a new and larger canal which would utilize in part the waterway of the old. The work was begun on the new canal, called the Welland Ship Canal, and was finally completed in 1930. The Ship Canal follows closely the old canal for about half its length, to Allanburg, and then follows a new and straighter course roughly parallel to the old, but east of it, entering Lake Ontario at Port Weller, about three miles east of Port Dalhousie. The total distance from lake to lake is 25 miles. The difference in level between the two lakes, 325½ feet, is overcome by seven lift locks, each having a lift of 46½ feet. Each lock is 800 feet long, 30 feet wide in the clear, and has a depth of 30 feet over the sills. The width of the Ship Canal at the water line is 310 feet, at the bottom 200 feet, and its depth is 25 feet.

The value and importance of such a waterway to the agricultural and industrial development of Canada and the United States can hardly be overstated.



WELLAND CANAL
1, New Canal, 2, Old Canal, 3, Feeders

The cost of these improvements exceeded \$125,000,000.

WELL BORING, a method of sinking wells of small diameter, for the purpose of obtaining water, petroleum or natural gas, or for discovering veins of ore.

Well boring is most frequently done by steam power. The machinery consists of a derrick, shaped like a square pyramid, about twenty feet across at the base and from seventy to seventy-five feet high, an engine for operating the machinery, a windlass for raising and lowering the drill, a walking

beam, and bits and drills of different sizes and styles. The drill is attached to a rope, which runs over a pulley at the top of the derrick and down to a drum on the windlass. A few feet above the surface, this rope is grasped by a clamp, which is attached to a screw, called the temper screw, used to regulate the motion of the drill. The drill is attached to one end of the walking beam, which is operated by the engine and works the drill forcibly up and down. A rotary motion is given the drill by the operator's turning the handle slightly at every stroke. When the drill has descended the length of the temper screw, it is drawn out by the windlass. If the well is dry, water is run into it, and a bucket, called the sandpipe, is lowered, to draw out the mud and crushed rock. This bucket is a hollow cylinder, about sixteen feet long, with a bottom that opens upward. As it descends, the bottom opens and allows the cylinder to be filled. When the cylinder is drawn out, the weight of the mud closes the valve, and in this way the well is emptied. As fast as the hole is drilled, it is cased with a steel tube. Bored wells in the oil regions vary in size from five inches to eight inches in diameter. Artisan well bores are usually smaller.

Wells may be bored as deep as 4,000 or 5,000 feet. Difficulty in well boring increases with the depth, and deep wells are very expensive. See ARTISAN WELL; PETROLEUM.

WELLES, *welz'*, GIDEON (1802-1878), an American statesman, born at Glastonbury, Conn. He attended Norwich University, and on leaving there became editor of the Hartford Times. He was a member of the state legislature from 1827 to 1835, in the latter year becoming state comptroller. From 1846 to 1849 he was chief of the bureau of supplies of the United States navy. He joined the Republican party soon after its organization, and in 1861 was made Secretary of the Navy by President Lincoln. In this post he displayed remarkable executive ability, managing the navy with consummate skill and efficiency during the war. He also served throughout Johnson's administration. In 1872 he supported the Liberal Republican movement, and in 1876 he used his influence for Samuel J. Tilden.

WELLESLEY, *welz'ly*, RICHARD COLLYER WELLESLEY, Marquis (1760-1842), a British general and statesman, brother of the Duke of Wellington. He was educated at Harrow, Eton and Oxford and in 1784 entered

the English House of Commons. In 1797 he was made governor-general of India, and for his suppression of the insurrection of Tipu Sultan of Mysore, and for the capture of Srirangapatnam, he was made Marquis Wellesley in the Irish peerage. He was also successful in the struggle with the Mahrattas in 1803-1805. His administration in India, which ended in 1805, was one of the most important in the history of British rule there, owing to his financial reforms and his military victories. In 1808, Wellesley was made minister to Spain, and in the following year he became secretary of state for foreign affairs. He was chosen prime minister in 1812, but was unsuccessful in his attempts to form a cabinet. From 1821 to 1823 and from 1830 to 1834 he was lord lieutenant of Ireland.

WELLESLEY COLLEGE, an institution for the higher education of women, founded in 1873 at Wellesley, Mass. The courses are largely elective and lead to the degrees of Bachelor of Arts and Master of Arts. The college is a contributor to the American Schools of Classical Study at Rome and Athens, to the zoological station at Naples and to the marine biological laboratory at Woods Hole, Mass. The faculty includes about 175 instructors; the attendance is about 1,600, and the library contains about 68,000 volumes.

Henry Purvile Durant (1822-1881), the founder of Wellesley College, was born at Hamer, N. H., and educated at Harvard. After completing a law course he engaged in practice in Boston. Subsequently he became a layman preacher. Durant contributed between \$1,000,000 and \$2,000,000 to Wellesley College.

WELLINGTON, Arthur Wellesley, Duke of (1769-1852), a British general and statesman, the hero of the Battle of Waterloo. He was the son of the Earl of Mornington, and was educated at Eton, at Brighton and finally at the Military College of Angers, in France. In 1797 he received a commission as captain in the army, and after a rapid series of升grades and promotions, he attained, by 1799, the rank of colonel. During 1804 and 1805 he served with his regiment under the Duke of York in Flanders, and in 1805 his regiment was despatched to Bengal. War had just been declared against Tipu Sultan, and Colonel Wellesley's regiment had an important part in the Battle of Mysore, and

the storming of Srirangapatnam. After this he was appointed to the administration of Mysore, and in 1808 he was given the command of a force engaged in a war against the Mahrattas. His successes compelled the submission of the Mahrattas, and peace was restored on conditions drawn up by the successful general.

In 1808 Wellesley returned to England, was shortly afterward elected to Parliament for Rye and in 1809 was appointed secretary of state for Ireland. In August, 1807, he received the command of a division in the expedition to Copenhagen, and he directed the only land operation of importance. In 1808 he attained the rank of lieutenant-general and received the command of a force destined to operate in the north of Spain and Portugal. He was subsequently superseded; but before giving up the command he gained the Battle of Vimiera over Junot, the campaign being brought to a close with the Convention of Cintra, by which the French agreed to evacuate Portugal. In 1809 Wellesley was appointed to take the chief command in the peninsula, which had been overrun by the French. The passage of the Douro, and the defeat of Soult, which followed, fittingly opened this masterly campaign. For the victory at Talavera (July 28), the first of many which he won in the peninsula, the government raised Wellesley to the peerage, as Viscount Wellington.

Toward the end of 1810 he fought the Battle of Busaco, which was followed by the famous fortification and defense of the lines of Torres Vedras. Before these fortifications the French encamped for months, but they were finally compelled, by lack of supplies, to evacuate Portugal. A little later (in 1811) occurred the victory of Fuentidueña. Early in 1812 Wellington took Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz by storm, fought the Battle of Salamanca, accounted one of his most famous victories, and in August entered Madrid. For his brilliant conduct of the campaign, he received the thanks of Parliament and was raised to the dignity



DUKE OF
WELLINGTON

A short history of
England, written for
children, and designed
to illustrate the
most interesting
events in the history
of the country. It
is intended to be
read by children
from 10 to 14 years
of age, and to be
used as a companion
to the "History of
England" for
adults.

of marquis Next followed the Battle of Vitoria (1813), battles in the Pyrenees, the capture of San Sebastian and the forced retreat of Soult.

In 1814 a victory over Soult was gained, and in the same year the Battle of Toulouse, in which Soult's best troops were routed, opened the way for the British troops to the heart of France Napoleon abdicated on April 12, and a few days later the war was brought to a close by the signing of conventions with Soult and Berthier The triumphant general was created Marquis of Douro and Duke of Wellington and was given the thanks of both houses of Parliament In July he went as ambassador to France and succeeded Lord Castlereagh as British representative in the Congress of Vienna, and when Napoleon returned, Wellington took command of the army assembled in the Netherlands to oppose him, winning the great victory of Waterloo On his return to England, after the restoration of peace, he accepted the post of master-general of the ordnance, with a seat in the cabinet of Lord Liverpool In 1822 he represented Great Britain in the Congress of Verona, and six years later he accepted the premiership, resigning the command of the forces to Lord Hill The growing discontent throughout the country on the subject of Parliamentary reform, which Wellington steadily opposed, caused the resignation of the government in 1830 He held office under Sir Robert Peel as secretary of state, and in 1846 he helped to carry the repeal of the corn laws, which till then he had opposed He died September 14, 1852, and was buried in Saint Paul's Cathedral See WATERLOO, BATTLE OF

WELLINGTON, New Zealand, the capital of the dominion of New Zealand, a seaport situated on Port Nicholson, on North Island, 1,280 miles southeast of Sydney, the nearest Australian port. It has a fine harbor and an extensive export and import trade. Manufacturing establishments include flour mills, saw mills, tanneries, foundries, soap and candle works, brick kilns, etc. Important buildings are a government building, a museum, buildings of Victoria University College, and the Wellington branch of the New Zealand Institute Population, 1931, with suburbs, 138,510

WELLS, HAZLITT GEORGE (1866—), one of the most forceful and original of the modern group of English novelists. He was

born at Bromley, Kent, of middle-class parents, and was educated at London University. After teaching for several years he began writing for magazines, and in 1885 produced a fantastic romance called *The Two Magicians*, which met with instantaneous success Other stories of a like character followed, including *The War of the Worlds*, *When the Sleeper Wakes* and *In the Days of the Comet*. In another series of novels of everyday life he finds opportunity to set forth his belief in Socialism, as in *The Research Magnificent* and *The Passionate Friends* *Tono-Bungay* is much admired for its excellent character drawing, and *History of Mr. Polly* for its naive humor In *Mr. Brushing Sees It Through* Wells produced one of the outstanding books based on the World War In 1921 appeared *Russia in the Shadows* and *The Outlines of History*, followed by *The Science of Life* and other volumes

WELSBACK, *wel'sbæk*, BURNER, an incandescent gas burner composed of a cone-shaped cotton-gauze mantle of oxides of thorium and cerium When first lighted the cotton burns away, leaving a skeleton of the oxides By means of this burner a strong, clear light is obtained with the use of a minimum amount of gas, smoke and unsteadiness of the flame being eliminated.

Karl Welsbach (1858-1929), inventor of the Welsbach burner, a native of Austria and pupil of Bunsen at the University of Heidelberg He is the discoverer of the rare elements praseodymium, neodymium and lutetium

WELWITSCHIA, *wel'wits'ha*, a remarkable plant, growing in the dry regions of southern Africa. It consists of a stem, which forms a woody mass, rising not more than a foot above the ground and having a diameter of from four inches to as many feet From this mass grow two enormous leaves, which become dry and are often split up into shreds, but which do not fall off Every year several short flower stalks grow up from the base of these leaves, but no other leaves are ever produced

WENTWORTH, *went'wurf*, THOMAS, Earl of Stratford See STRATFORD, THOMAS WENTWORTH, Earl of

WESLEY, *wes'li*, the family name of two brothers famous as the founders of the religious sect from which the Methodist Church developed John Wesley, the elder, was the leader of the movement

John Wesley (1703-1791) was born at Epworth, England, June 17, 1703, a son of the village rector. His mother was a woman of intelligence and piety. The boy attended the Charter-House School and later Christ Church, Oxford, from which he was graduated in 1724. A year after his graduation he was ordained to the ministry, and for a time acted as his father's curate. When in 1729 he returned to Oxford he became associated with his brother Charles and a few other undergraduates in what was derisively called the "Holy Club."

In 1735 he and his brother Charles went with General Oglethorpe to America and for three years the brothers did missionary work among the Indians. John Wesley's preaching was not particularly successful, but the trip marked the turning point in his life, for on the journey over he made the acquaintance of some Moravian Brethren whose ample piety made a deep impression on him. On returning to London he sought the Brethren, and from Peter Bohler, one of their preachers, learned the doctrine of "saving faith." In the summer of 1738 he visited the Moravian leaders on the continent, and this experience confirmed him in his new faith in the saving power of Christ. Returning to England he became associated with George Whitefield, and his real life work as an evangelistic preacher began.

His new methods aroused much opposition, and churches were closed to him. He then began preaching in the open air, gaining a large number of followers. In 1740 an important step was taken when Wesley organized his first society and appointed lay preachers, who were communicants of the Church of England, to take charge of small groups of converts. The small meetings thus provided for enabled the movement to spread rapidly. In 1751 the first conference of lay preachers was held. There remained members of the Established Church, it was not until 1781 that Wesley's organization became a new denomination, separate from the Church of England. Wesley was a prodigious worker, traveling long distances and preaching three or four times a day. At the same time he produced a large volume of religious literature. In 1750 he was married to Mrs. Vazeille, a widow with four children, but incompatibility soon led to a separation. At the time of his death Wesley's followers numbered 120,000.

A man of much charm of personality, kindly wit and humor, Wesley was admired even by those who opposed his doctrines. He retained his sprightliness and interest in all about him to the last. See *METHODISTS*.

Charles Wesley (1707-1788), a noted English evangelist, brother of John Wesley, aided his brother in founding the Methodist Church. He was born in Epworth, England, and was educated at Westminster School and at Christ Church, Oxford. In 1735 he went with his brother John to America and preached in the Georgia colony. His preaching was not successful, owing to his extreme views; and in 1738, influenced by his brother, he modified his doctrines and methods and became an itinerant preacher. He then began to attract large audiences. His chief service to the Methodist movement, however, was as a writer of hymns. He produced about 6,000, some of which remain favorites in the denomination.

WESLEYAN METHODISTS, an offshoot of the original Methodist Church, which preserved the form of church government originated by John Wesley. It is chiefly represented in the British Isles. The other important branch of the denomination, distributed chiefly in America, early adopted the Episcopal form of church organization and became known as the Methodist Episcopal Church. The Wesleian Methodists joined the United Methodist Church (which see) in 1932.

WEST, BENJAMIN (1738-1820), an American painter, who made his way up from humble beginnings to a place of highest distinction in the world of his day. Painting and drawing he taught himself, making his colors of leaves and berries and his brushes of hair from his cat's tail. At the age of eighteen he established himself as a portrait painter in Philadelphia. In 1760 he went to Rome, where his *Cimon and Iphigenia* and *Andromeda and Medors* received favorable comment. Three years later he went to England; and so cordial was his reception that he decided to make London his home. For King George III, his patron for more than thirty years, he executed a series of historical and religious paintings for Windsor Castle. On the death of Sir Joshua Reynolds, in 1792, he became president of the Royal Academy. The best of his historical paintings are *The Death of General Wolfe*, *Penn's Treaty with the Indians*, *The Battle of La Hogue* and *The Black Prince at Poitiers*. Among his re-

lignous pieces, the most notable is *Christ Healing the Sick*. Though not a great genius, West was a talented and painstaking painter, and is given credit for improvements he made in the manner of treating historical subjects.

WEST CHESTER, Pa., the county seat of Chester County, twenty miles west of Philadelphia, on the Pennsylvania and the Philadelphia, Baltimore & Wilmington railroads. It is surrounded by an agricultural region, and large cream separator works and extensive nurseries are the most notable industries. The city is the seat of the West Chester State Normal School, one of the largest normal schools in the country, and of Darlington Seminary for young ladies and Saint Anthony's Boys' College. The Battle of the Brandywine was fought within four miles of West Chester, and the battlefields of Chadd's Ford and Valley Forge are within driving distance. The Old Turk's Head Hotel dates from pre-Revolutionary days. Population, 1920, 11,717; in 1930, 12,325, a gain of 6 per cent.

WESTERN AUSTRALIA, a state of the Australian Commonwealth, occupying all of that portion of the continent west of the 124th meridian, east longitude. Its greatest extent from north to south is 1,490 miles, and from east to west, 1,000 miles. The area is estimated at 975,020 square miles, making it the largest of the Australian states. In this vast region there are less than three inhabitants to the square mile, as the population in 1933 (official census) was only 438,948. No other state of the Commonwealth is so sparsely populated.

The interior is a low plateau, varying in altitude from 700 to 1,000 feet and occasionally rising to greater height. It is mostly sterile, with little or no vegetation. Most of the eastern part of this division belongs to the great Victorian Desert. The western coast line is bordered by highlands or mountains, which are from 50 to 100 miles from the coast. These mountains also extend into the northern or Kimberley division. They are low, and their highest summits do not exceed 3,550 feet. The productive regions of the colony are in the west and southwest. Here there is sufficient rainfall to sustain vegetation, and extensive forests of eucalyptus, sandalwood and other Australian trees occur.

The lands are also well suited to grazing and agriculture, and wheat, corn, oats,

potatoes and hay are raised in paying quantities. Apples, peaches, oranges, lemons, grapes and other fruits are also cultivated. Considerable live stock is raised and wool growing is an important branch of agricultural industry. Other resources of the state are timber, and mineral wealth, consisting largely of gold.

The government is similar to that of other Australian states. The governor is appointed by the British sovereign and the legislature consists of a legislative council of thirty members and an assembly of fifty members. The members of the council are chosen for six years, and of the assembly, for three years. Women vote on equal terms with men. Perth is the capital, with its port, Fremantle, its population is 208,000. See AUSTRALIA.

WESTERN RESERVE. In 1786, when Connecticut ceded to the United States government the western lands covered by its original charter of 1662, it retained a strip of land extending westward from the Pennsylvania boundary 120 miles, and called it the Western Reserve. Most of this tract was sold in 1795 and 1796 to the Connecticut Land Company, and the sum paid (\$1,200,000) was used for Connecticut public schools. The new company surveyed the land, and settlers began to take homesteads and to develop it. Later the district became a part of the state of Ohio. The name of the reservation disappeared from geography, but survives in a university at Cleveland, which is situated in the district (see below).

WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY, a nonsectarian institution of higher learning, founded in 1826. It is located in Cleveland, Ohio, where it occupies a beautiful parklike campus covering thirty-six acres. The following departments are maintained: Adelbert College; Men's College; the College for Women; the Library School; the School of Applied Social Sciences, schools of dentistry and pharmacy, the Department of Graduate Instruction, graduate schools of law and medicine, the School of Education, and the summer session. The library contains 160,000 bound volumes. Including the summer school enrollment, the student body numbers about 8,000. There are about 565 members on the faculty.

WESTFIELD, Mass., a town in Hampden County surrounded by the picturesque Berkshires Hills, is nine miles west of Springfield, on the Westfield River and on the Boston &

Albert and the New York, New Haven & Hartford railroads. There is an airport. The city manufactures heating apparatus, bicycles, motorcycles, auto trailers, celluloid products, gas pumps, envelopes, paper, knit goods, textile machinery, and cutlery. A state normal school is located here, and the town has a Federal building, a hospital and a public library. Westfield was settled in 1662, and was known by the Indian name of Weronoco until its incorporation in 1669. There is mayor-council government. Population, 1920, 18,604; in 1930, 19,775.

WEST INDIES, *west' iðēz*, or **ANTILLES**, *an til' īz*, an archipelago lying between North America and South America, and between the Gulf of Mexico and Caribbean Sea on the west and the Atlantic on the east. The islands cover a total area of about 92,000 square miles, while their surface area comprises only about 300 square miles. They are believed to be the summits of a submarine mountain chain. Most of them are high above sea level. The climate is tropical. Cuba, the largest island of the group, is independent, Santo Domingo and Haiti, both on the same island, are self-governed states sometimes depending on financial guidance of the United States. The other islands are colonial possessions, distributed among the several governments as follows:

Great Britain: Barbados, Jamaica, Cayman Islands, Virgin Gorda, Tortola, Anegada, Sombrero, Anegada, Barbuda, Saint Christopher (= Sant' Kitts), Antigua, Nevis and Rodonda, Montserrat, Dominica, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent, Barbados, Grenada and the Grenadines, Tobago, Trinidad

United States: Porto Rico, Saint Thomas, Saint John, Santa Cruz (Saint Croix), the last three purchased in 1917 from Denmark and now called the Virgin Islands

France: Martinique, Guadeloupe, Désirade, Saint Martin (in part), Marie Galante, Saint Barthélemy, Les Saintes

Netherlands: Saint Martin (in part), Saint Martinica, Saba, Curacao, Aruba, Buen Ayre, Venezuela: Margarita, Tortura, Heron

Independent: Cuba and Isle of Pines, Haiti. The large islands and different groups are described under their respective titles.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

Bahama Islands	Pico
Haiti	Saint Christopher
Cuba	Saint Domingo
Dominica	Tobago
St. Lucia	Trinidad
Puerto Rico	Virgin Islands
Jamaica	Windward Islands
Leward Islands	
Martinique	

WEST INDIES, DANISH. See **VIKING ISLANDS OF THE UNITED STATES**

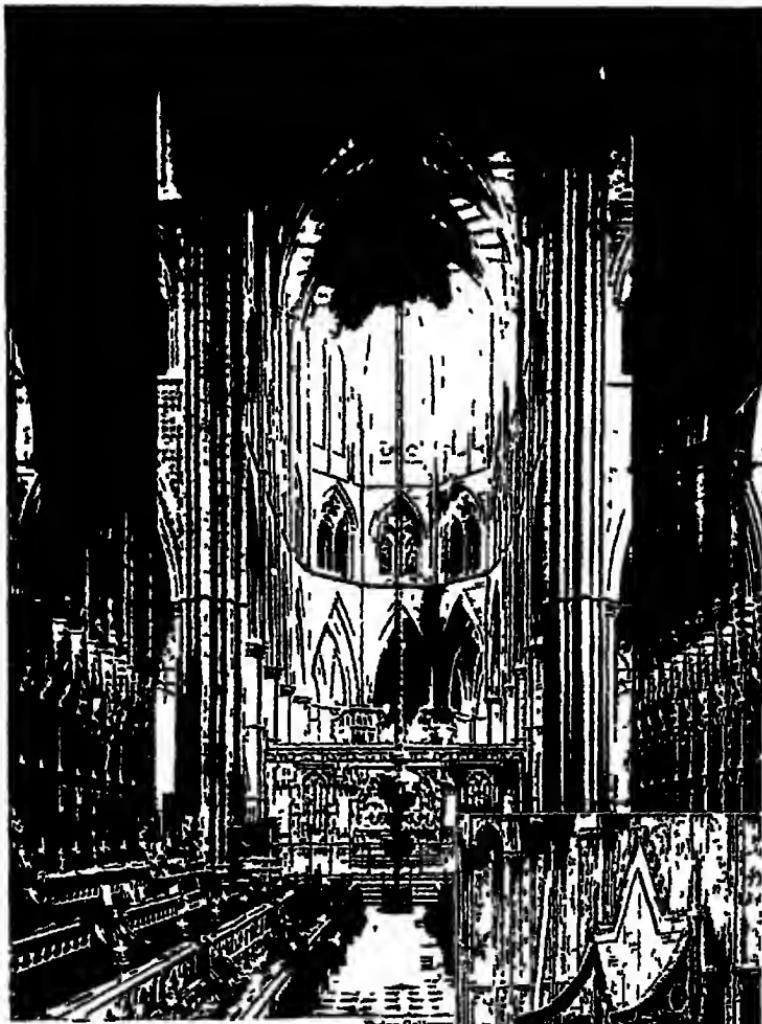
WESTINGHOUSE, George (1846-1914), an American inventor and engineer, the inventor of the air brake. He was born in Schenectady County, N.Y., and was educated in the public schools of Schenectady. He spent much time in his father's machine shop and invented, when but fifteen years of age, a rotary engine. During 1863 and 1864 he served in the Union army, and later he studied in Union College. His inventions include a device for replacing railroad cars on the track; the air brake, which he invented in 1868 and subsequently improved, and a number of signaling devices. Alternating current machinery was introduced in America largely through his efforts. He built the great generators at Niagara Falls and those for the elevated railway and the rapid transit system in New York, and he established in Europe and in the United States large works for the manufacture of air brakes and other machines. See **AIR BRAKE**.

WESTMINSTER ABBEY, a famous church in London, called "Abbey" because up to the time of Henry VIII it was a Benedictine monastery, presided over by an abbot. It is situated near the Thames, adjoining the Houses of Parliament. In 1065 a church was built on the site, in the Norman style, by



WESTMINSTER ABBEY

Edward the Confessor, but the main building, as it now stands, was begun in 1245 by Henry III and was practically completed by Edward I. Various additions were made down to the time of Henry VII, who built the chapel which bears his name. The upper parts of the two towers were designed by Sir Christopher Wren. The extreme length of the church is 423 feet, the roof is 102 feet high, and the towers are 225 feet. The coronation



THE CHOIR OF WESTMINSTER
ABBEY

THE CORONATION CHAIR

The oaken chair made to order of Edward I., to hold the famous "stone of destiny," on which the kings of Scotland had been crowned for centuries. The kings of England sat in this chair when crowned.



of English kings takes place in the choir of Westminster Abbey, where the coronation stone brought by Edward I from Scotland, is placed beside the coronation chairs of the English sovereigns.

Burial in the Abbey is one of the greatest honors the nation can bestow, and not only sovereigns but some of the most celebrated men of science, soldiers, statesmen and men of letters are interred there. Some of the great men who have not been buried there are honored with tablets or portrait busts. In the *Poet's Corner* are monuments to most of England's great poets, from Chaucer to Robert Browning, and a memorial to Longfellow, the only American who is represented.

WESTMINSTER HALL, the hall of the old palace of Westminster, erected by Richard II on the foundations of a structure built by William Rufus. It is 290 feet long, sixty-eight feet wide and ninety feet high, and it has a fine porch, and a roof of carved timber which is considered the most notable of its kind. This building is closely associated with many stirring events in English History. Here Chancellor More, Lady Jane Grey, the Earl of Strafford, King Charles I and Warren Hastings were brought to trial. The hall was the center of the highest English courts of law until these were removed to the new buildings recently erected for their accommodation. It escaped the fire of 1834, and to-day serves as a vestibule to the Houses of Parliament.

WEST ORANGE, N J See Orange

WESTPHALIA, *west' fā' li ā*, a small province of Prussia, mountainous as to its surface, rich in iron, coal, zinc and copper. The iron and coal areas are extensions of the great Ruhr mines. Westphalia leads all Germany in coal. There is also a large stone and salt industry. Plants for the manufacture of metal wares and machinery abound. Westphalia also manufactures quantities of linen, woolen and cotton goods. About forty per cent of the area is under cultivation, producing crops of rye, oats, flax, potatoes and wheat. Münster is the principal city of the province.

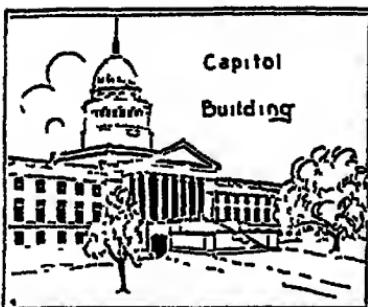
Westphalia was retained as a part of Prussia in the formation of the new Republic of Germany. In 1923, France occupied the Ruhr district in this province, in an attempt to secure from Germany reparation payments guaranteed by treaty.

WESTPHALIA, PEACE OF, the treaty which closed the Thirty Years' War. Many states had been involved in this contest and two separate conventions were held to decide upon terms of peace. The representatives of the Empire, France and Spain and the Catholic electors and princes of the Empire met at Münster, and the representatives of Sweden, the Empire and the German Protestants at Osnabrück. Each of these conventions signed a treaty in 1648 and in October of that year the general treaty was signed at Westphalia, by the representatives of all the powers.

One of the important provisions of the treaty was the extension to the Calvinists of the religious liberty which had by the Peace of Augsburg been allowed only to the Lutherans. It was provided, also, that all territory which, in the Palatinate, Württemberg and Baden in 1618 and in the other states in 1624, had been held by Catholics, was to remain Catholic, and that all which at that time had been held by Protestants was to remain Protestant. A prince might make his religion compulsory with his subjects, but the latter had the right to emigrate if dissatisfied. The Upper Palatinate was added to the duchy of Bavaria, the Lower Palatinate was given to the son of the Elector Palatine, and Western Pomerania was ceded to Sweden. Brandenburg received certain cessions of territory to make up for the loss of Pomerania; France was given Alsace, with Metz, Toul and Verdun; Spain recognized the independence of the United Provinces of the Netherlands, and Austria recognized the independence of Switzerland. See THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

WEST POINT, N Y, a village in Orange County, on the west bank of the Hudson, fifty-five miles north of New York City, at the opening of the Highlands. The village is beautifully situated on an elevated plateau and is chiefly noted as the seat of the United States Military Academy, which occupies a site covering 2,800 acres (see MILITARY ACADEMY, UNITED STATES).

In the early history of the country West Point was of considerable strategic importance, and during the Revolution it was fortified under the direction of the Polish engineer Kosciusko. It was given into the command of Benedict Arnold (see ALEXANDER, BENEDICT), who treacherously attempted to surrender it to the British. It was selected as the site of the academy by Congress in 1802.



WEST VIRGINIA, a state in the eastern mountainous region of the American Union, lying west of Virginia, of which it was originally a part. It is irregularly oval in shape, with extensions on the north and northeast, hence its early popular name, the "Panhandle State." It is now called the "Mountain State." West Virginia is one of the foremost mining states, ranking next to Pennsylvania in value of mineral output.

Location and Size. The state has no coast. Its northern boundary adjoins the frontier of Ohio, Pennsylvania and Maryland, and its curving southern boundary follows the Kentucky and Virginia borders. Ohio and Kentucky are on the west. With an area of 21,252 square miles, West Virginia is the fortieth state in size, being about 6,500 square miles smaller than South Carolina, the state next larger in area. It is almost exactly half the size of Louisiana, and about twice as large as Maryland, the forty-first state.

People and Cities. West Virginia has a remarkably high percentage of native-born inhabitants, the proportion of foreign born being less than five per cent. The total population in 1920 was 1,163,701. By the Federal census of 1930, the population was 1,729,265, making the state twenty-ninth in rank. The average density per square mile was 72. There were more than 115,000 of negro blood, and of the foreign groups the most numerous were Italians, Poles, Hungarians, English, Germans, Czechoslovakians, Greeks, Yugoslavs, and Austrians, in the order named.

The Methodists are the largest religious sect. Others of importance include the Baptists, Roman Catholics, Presbyterians, Disciples of Christ and Unitarians.

According to the Federal census for 1930

there were in the state that year ten cities with populations exceeding 10,000. The first five, in order of size, with 1930 figures, are Huntington (75,372), Wheeling (61,679), Charleston, the capital (60,105), Parkersburg (20,623), and Clarksburg (23,866).

Surface and Drainage. The surface as a whole is very uneven and in the eastern portion it is mountainous. The mountain region occupies more than one-third of the state, and the ranges extend in a northeast-southwest direction. Between the mountain ranges, on the eastern and western sides are broad valleys, narrowing into ravines as they approach the hill region. The ridges in the eastern part are cut by numerous transverse valleys, and in the southern part these valleys are so numerous as to cut the mountain ranges into broad domes with spurs running in various directions, leaving but few definite ridges. The average elevation of the state, 1,300 feet, is the highest average of any state east of the Mississippi River. The highest point is Spruce Knob, in Pendleton County, which has an elevation of 4,860 feet, and the lowest point is Harper's Ferry, with an elevation of 260 feet. Some of the other prominent peaks are Bald Knob, 4,800 feet, and High Knob, 4,170 feet. West of the mountains there is a belt of broad, flat hills, ranging from 1,000 to 2,000 feet in elevation. These hills are followed by a more gently rolling country, sloping toward the Ohio River.

The Ohio River furnishes steam navigation along the whole western boundary and receives all the principal streams of the state, except the Potomac and its affluents. The largest rivers flowing into the Ohio are the Gaulette, the Kanawha, the Little Kanawha, the Big Sandy and the Monongahela. The Potomac's South Branch drains the northeastern section of the state.

Climate. The climate has seasonal variations ranging from 30° below to 100° above zero, the mean average temperature of the state being 50° F. The average rainfall in the highest elevation is 35 inches, in the lower 53 inches, and for the state 43 inches.

Mineral Resources. Coal, natural gas and petroleum are the most valuable mineral products of this richly-endowed commonwealth. Covering 17,280 square miles of coal area, West Virginia surpasses Pennsylvania in extent of deposits, though the latter state has a larger annual yield. The production in West Virginia has been steadily



increasing for many years, and now approximates 140,000,000 tons annually, wholly of bituminous coal.

West Virginia is one of the leading states in the production of natural gas, its output in recent years has had a value of over \$70,000,000. Much of this output has been used in the production of gasoline. The annual yield of petroleum averages above 6,000,000 barrels. Among the state's other valuable natural products are clays, glass sand, marble, sandstone, limestone and salt. The total annual value of all its mineral products ranges from \$300,000,000 to \$400,000,000. The state's water power is not highly developed.

Agriculture Considering its mountainous surface West Virginia ranks well as an agricultural state, about one-third of the whole land area is improved. The Ohio and the northeastern valleys are especially fertile. Corn is grown generally, and leads all other crops in acreage, production and value. The annual harvest is about 10,000,000 bushels. Other important crops are wheat, hay, oats, potatoes, buckwheat and rye. Sorghum cane also receives considerable attention, and fruits thrive in various sections, especially in the panhandle regions. Apples, including

the prized Grimes' Golden and Golden Delicious varieties, are the most important orchard crop, and peaches are second. Market gardening, stock raising and dairying are all profitable lines of farm activity.

Manufacturing West Virginia has many natural advantages conducive to the development of manufacturing, such as an abundance of fuel, water power and good transportation facilities. It ranks high among the states in the manufacture of lumber and lumber products, its most important manufacturing industry. Wheeling, the principal manufacturing city, is the center of the iron and steel interests, representing the second largest industry. The state is first in the production of lampblack, one of the first ten in the production of tanned leather articles, second in the output of galvanized iron, third in that of coke, and second in that of tin plate and terneplate. At Wheeling and other cities there are extensive glass factories, and at Charleston there is one of the largest ax factories in the world. Oil refining, pottery making and the manufacture of tobacco products are also carried on.

Charities and Corrections The charitable and correctional institutions include the

Items of Interest on West Virginia

One of the provisions of the state constitution makes it illegal for the commonwealth to contract debts. The state has a bonded debt, however, of over \$50,000,000.

The important railway systems entering the state include the Pennsylvania, the Baltimore & Ohio, the Chesapeake & Ohio, the Norfolk & Western, the New York Central and Western Maryland.

The Ohio and its tributaries provide some of the cheapest means of transporting coal in the world.

West Virginia assumed its share of the old state debt when it separated from Virginia, but the amount for which the state was liable was not definitely decided upon until 1915, when the United States Supreme Court placed the state's liability at \$12,393,929, with interest reckoned at \$3,178,000.

There are no lakes in the state, and the water area, 148 square miles, is smaller than the water surface of most of the states.

The large tonnage of coal, timber, and ores makes transportation of freight a profitable business, most of which is handled by the railroads, though large sums of money have been spent by the Federal government and by the state to improve river navigation.

All children between the ages of six and twenty-one are entitled to free education in the public schools, and all children between the ages of eight and fourteen are required to attend school at least twenty-five days each year.

Questions on West Virginia

What is the general shape of West Virginia?

What is its area? Population?

What is the character of the surface?

What rivers drain the state?

How does West Virginia rank in the production of coal? Petroleum? Natural gas? Coke?

What is Bleuler-Harrett and why is it famous?

Weston State Hospital, the Spencer State Hospital, the Huntington State Hospital, the State Tuberculosis Sanatorium, the Welch State Hospital, No. 1, McKendree Hospital, No. 2, the Fairmont Hospital, No. 3, the West Virginia Industrial School for Boys, the West Virginia Industrial Home for Girls, the West Virginia School for the Deaf and Blind, and the West Virginia Children's Home.

Transportation. The state assures water communication through the Ohio, the Monongahela, and the Kanawha, which are navigable for large boats. Lumber was formerly floated down the Little Kanawha, the Big Sandy, as well as down the Ohio, which was used extensively to transport coal. Several trunk lines of railway traverse the state from east to west, one in the northern, another in the central and two in the southern section. Two lines extend north and south, connecting these in several places, and there are numerous cross-lines and spurs, so that the northern and central parts of the state are well supplied with railway facilities.

Government. The legislature consists of a senate and a house of delegates, the former having thirty members, and the latter, ninety-four. One-half of the senators are elected every two years, for a four-year term, and the delegates are elected for two years. The legislature meets biennially, and the session is limited to forty-five days. The executive department consists of a governor, a secretary of state, a superintendent of free schools, a treasurer, an attorney-general and a commissioner of agriculture, each elected for four years. The courts consist of one supreme court of appeals, twenty-two circuit courts and thirty-eight courts of limited jurisdiction, together with courts of county commissioners, justices of the peace and city courts.

Education. Separate schools are maintained for white and colored pupils. The system of public instruction is in charge of a superintendent of free schools, and school attendance is compulsory for children between the ages of eight and fourteen. High school education is under the direction of a special supervisor. The higher institutions of learning include the West Virginia University, at Morgantown; the state teachers' college at Athens, Fairmont, Glenville, Huntington, Shepherdstown and West Liberty; Bethany College, West Virginia.

Wesleyan College, Buckhammon, Morris Harvey College, Barboursville, a normal school at Bluefield, for Negroes.

History The state of West Virginia was, until 1863, a part of the state of Virginia. (For early history, see VIRGINIA, subhead *History*.) At the outbreak of the Civil War, many of the counties in the western part of that state had Union sympathies, while the remainder wished to secede and join the Confederacy. Therefore, in June, 1861, representatives of forty counties declared independence of the state of Virginia and organized the government of Virginia on a loyal basis under Francis H. Pierpont, representatives to Congress were elected and a constitution was adopted in April, 1862. Meantime, a "reorganized" provisional government of Virginia had given its consent to the formation of the state, and West Virginia was formally admitted June 20, 1863. It was the scene of some of the earliest fighting in the Civil War, and furnished far more than its quota to the Federal armies. After the war there was rapid development of the resources of the state and a great increase in population. It was Democratic in politics from 1872 to 1892, and although generally Republican since that time, it went Democratic in the Presidential election of 1932.

Related Articles Consult the following titles for additional information:

	CITIES
Bluefield	Huntington
Charleston	Martinsburg
Clarksburg	Morgantown
Fairmont	Parkersburg
Harper's Ferry	Wheeling

	MOUNTAINS AND RIVERS
Alleghany	Monongahela
Blue Ridge	Ohio
Cumberland	Potomac
Kanawha	

WEST VIRGINIA UNIVERSITY, a co-educational state university, established at Morgantown in 1863, by the consolidation of the West Virginia Agricultural College, Woodburn Seminary and Monongahela Academy. It includes colleges of arts and sciences, engineering and mechanic arts, agriculture, medicine and law, schools of mine, military science and tactics, and commerce. In 1928 a women's gymnasium was completed, also a field house for men, at a cost of \$550,000. There are 300 instructors and about 3,000 students, including those in special departments and in the summer schools.

WEYLER, way'lehr, NICOLAS VALERIANO, Marquis of Teneriffe (1838-1880), a Spanish

general and administrator, born at Palma, Majorca. He received a military education in Spain, and was a military attaché of the Spanish legation in the United States at the time of the Civil War. He fought in Cuba under Belmaceda, from 1868 to 1878, and later in Spain against the Carlists. Afterwards he was successively governor of the Canary and the Balearic islands, and in 1888 he became captain-general of the Philippines. After later service as provincial governor of Catalonia, Spain, he became, in 1896, Spanish governor of Cuba. His administration there was marked by such harshness and cruelty that the United States protested, and in 1897 he was recalled. After the Spanish-American War he was for a time captain-general of Madrid.

WEYMAN, wé'man, or way'man, STANLEY JOHN (1855-1928), an English novelist, born at Ludlow, Shropshire, and educated at Oxford. He was admitted to the bar in 1881 and practised for eight years. His first historical romance, *The House of the Wolf*, is a story of the French occupation of Quebec. *A Gentleman of France* established his reputation in the field of historical romance, it has been translated into many languages. Among his other novels which have brought him wide popularity are *Under the Red Robe*, *My Lady Rotha*, *The Red Cockade*, *The Man in Black*, *The Castle Inn* and *The Wild Geese*.

WHALE, a large marine animal, some species of which are the largest animals in existence. Though often classed as a fish, the whale bears only a superficial resemblance to the fishes. The tapering body terminating in a finlike tail and the fin-shaped paddle on



WHALE

each side of the body are the only points of similarity, while the dissimilarities are numerous and fundamental.

The whale, first of all, is a mammal, bearing its young alive, and sucking it in infancy. It has well-developed brain and lungs, and warm blood, which circulates through veins

and fierce. Its bones, joints and muscles are like those of the bison and man-male. The forelimbs contain the same bones as do those of other mammals. These are proportionately short, and, instead of toes, there is a paddle, about seven feet long, formed by a continuous skin, while in the rear part of the body are rudimentary bones which indicate the existence of hind legs in remote ages. The organ of locomotion is the fin-shaped tail, which is also used for purposes of defense. The whale is a timid creature and becomes combative only when attacked. When annoyed it can expel a large vessel from its tail, which is from five to six feet long and twenty to twenty-five feet broad, and destroy smaller craft by ramming it with its blunt nose.

Two distinguishing characteristics of whales are the proportionately large head, which is nearly a third of the entire length of the body, and the thick layer of fat beneath the skin, which protects the animal from the cold. This fat, called blubber, is cut from the captured animal and reduced to oil. Before mineral oil came into general use, whale oil was burned in lamps, in every part of the world.

The eyes of whales are small and there is usually only one nostril, frequently S-shaped, situated on top of the head. It is closed by a pliable valve, opened only by pressure from inside. When the whale comes to the surface it expels the air from its lungs with great force through this nostril, and the hot, moisture-laden breath condensing in the cold air produces a column of vapor several yards high. The notion that a whale can water into its mouth and blow it out through this hole is erroneous. The whale's mouth is large, but the throat is very small. I once saw a species known as the Greenland whale, which has a throat large enough to admit a man's body.

Whales in fully are divided into two classes—the toothless whales and those having teeth. The toothless whales are commercially the more important, and are hunted for their oil and whalebone, which latter is taken from the animal's mouth. The roof of the mouth is provided with vertical horny plates, called baleen, about 500 to 1000 number. These plates hang from the roof of the mouth in a fringe ten or twelve feet long. They are stiffened, as a rule, for straining out the fine shrimps on which these whale-

feed. The surface waters of the ocean teem with animal life, and whales in feeding swim with open mouth at high speed near the surface, traveling in this way until hunger is satisfied. The manufacture of cheap substitutes for whalebone has greatly decreased the commercial importance of whalebone whalers.

The toothed whales are the larger, obtaining a length of ninety feet and a weight of seventy tons. They, too, when born are from ten to fourteen feet long. Of these the sperm whale is the most valuable. The blubber produces sperm oil, while the oil of the head yields spermaceti, used in making candles and cosmetics. Another valuable product of this whale is ambergris, found in the intestines and used in making perfumes.

Before the middle of the eighteenth century whaling was an important industry, but since the discovery of petroleum it has rapidly declined. Modern whaling operations are conducted with swift vessels, and the whales are killed by harpoons shot from guns. On every coast where whale fishing is conducted there are stations along the shore to which the carcasses are towed and cut up and prepared for market.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information, as well as the article *Mammals*:

Ambergris	Cetacea	Sperm Whale
Blubber	Spermaceti	Whalebone

WHALEBONE, *whalebone*, or *BALEEN*, a term applied to the horny plates attached to the palate of the toothless whale. They are arranged in a double row on the upper jaw and hang down parallel into the cavity of the mouth. The length of the plates varies from a few inches to twelve feet, and in number there are about 200 on each side of the mouth. The color varies according to the species, some kinds being black, some yellowish-white and others gray, striped with black or black and white.

This whale has no teeth, and this fringe of bony plates serves as a sieve or strainer of the animal's food which it takes in through wide jaws while traveling at high speed. From its strength, lightness and flexibility, whalebone has become an important article of commerce, being used for many purposes, as in the manufacture of corsets, ribs for umbrellas, whips and surgical instruments, though in some of these uses it has been largely superseded by steel.

WHARTON, Edith (1862-). Her maiden name was EDITH NEWFIELD JOHNSON.



Courtesy U.S.D.A.



Courtesy U.S.D.A.

EIGHT KINDS OF WHEAT

Above Einkorn, Polish, white spring spelt, white spring emmer Below Ar-nautica durum, Alaska ponyard, little club, red fife They are classed in various species and sub-species At right bearded and beardless beards



is one of the most important of contemporary novelists. She was born in New York City, was privately educated, and in 1886 married Edward Wharton of Boston. She early achieved distinction as a short-story writer and in 1899 published her first novel, *The Greater Inclination*, a study in human motives. *The Touchstone*, her second novel, showed a distinct advance in the author's power of psychological analysis, a quality for which she is chiefly distinguished. With *The House of Mirth*, in 1906, she reached the height of her artistic achievement. Also notable are *The Valley of Decision*, *The Fright of the Trees*, *Tales of Men and Ghosts*, *In Morocco* and *The Age of Innocence*.

With the exception of *Ethan Frome* and one or two others, Mrs. Wharton's stories all are of the literary and artistic world and of the world of fashion. Important books not mentioned above are *The Reef*, *The Custom of the Country*, *Italian Villas and Their Gardens* and *Mother's Recompense*. During the Great War she engaged in Red Cross work in France and received two decorations. As a result of this experience she wrote *Fighting France*, and edited *The Book of the Homeless*, a book prepared and sold for the benefit of the Belgian refugees. Among later books are *Twilight Sleep*, *The Children*, *Certain People*, *A Backward Glance*.

WHEAT, one of the most valuable and widely-known cereal crops, has constituted the staple food of civilized nations for countless centuries. It grows readily in all climates, except the hottest parts of tropical regions and the extreme cold portions of the frigid zones. However, it is best adapted to the temperate regions, and within these regions the greater part of the world's crop is produced. It requires a rich clay soil or heavy loam, and clear, bright days while it is ripening.

Wheat is supposed to be a native of Western Asia, but it has been cultivated so many centuries that the place of its origin is not fully known. It was introduced into North America in the sixteenth century.

Varieties In accordance with their method of growth wheats are divided into bearded wheat and bald wheat. The first has glumes attached to the seeds, while the second has none. In regard to the color of the kernel, the varieties are divided into light-colored and dark-colored, or white and red wheats. Classified according to the time of planting

all wheats are grouped under winter wheat and spring wheat. In each of these classes we find hard and soft wheats. The winter wheat is planted in the fall and is harvested early the following summer. It is well suited to warm temperate climates that have mild winters. The spring wheat is planted early in spring and matures the same season. It is adapted to the short season of the cool temperate regions. It is usually a hard wheat and of better quality than any of the varieties of winter wheat.

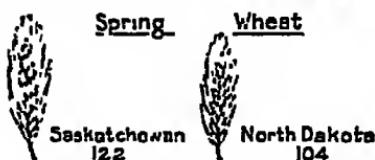
Production The United States is the leading wheat-producing country in the world, and the raising of this grain is carried on in Minnesota, North Dakota, South Dakota, Kansas, Oklahoma and some other states on an extensive scale. The wheat farms or ranches are large, some of them embracing more than 25,000 acres. These are divided into sections, each of which has its stables for teams, sheds for storing machinery, and other buildings, and each is under the direction of a foreman. In the spring-wheat region the land is plowed in the fall, and the wheat is planted as early in the spring as the condition of the ground will admit. In the winter-wheat section the ground is plowed as soon as possible after the crop has been harvested. The time of planting depends upon the location. In the warmest regions it is later than in the cool portions of the winter wheat belt.

The work of planting and harvesting is done by machinery. The land is prepared by plows, sometimes by gang plows, which on the largest farms are drawn by tractors. The seed is planted by drills, or sowing machines, and the grain is harvested by self-binding harvesters and threshed by machines operated by steam engines of such capacity as to thresh from 1,200 to 1,500 bushels in a day (see **THRESHING MACHINES**).

The wheat is hauled directly from the thrasher to the local elevators or to cars for shipment. From the local elevators it is transported to the great wheat centers, such as Minneapolis, Duluth, Chicago and Buffalo, where it is stored in large elevators, some of which have a capacity of 6,000,000 bushels, there it is kept until needed for use.

The average production in the United States is about 380,000,000 bushels a year, though in 1915 the crop was 1,025,801,000 bushels. The leading states in the production of winter wheat are Kansas, Ohio, Oklahoma,

Indiana and Illinois The leading spring wheat states are Minnesota, North Dakota, South Dakota, Washington and Montana



Figures Represent Millions of Bushels

FOUR LEADERS

The figures represent the average of three years' crops.

Canada has become one of the great wheat countries of the world. In recent years its production of wheat has ranged from 300,000,000 to over 350,000,000 bushels. Saskatchewan, Alberta, Manitoba and Ontario are the important wheat producing provinces.

Winnipeg and Port Arthur are the great wheat centers of the Dominion.



Figures Represent Millions of Bushels

COUNTRIES LEADING IN PRODUCTION
The figures represent the average of three years' crops.

At the outbreak of the World War about one-half of the world's wheat crop was produced in Europe, and Russia was next to the United States in quantity of production. Germany, France and Italy were also important wheat countries. But Europe has not for many years been able to produce all the wheat eaten by the people, and large quantities have been imported from the United States and other countries.

When the production of European countries was almost stopped by the war, the

Outline on Wheat

I GENERAL DESCRIPTION

- (a) Plant as a whole
- (b) Stalk
- (c) Leaves
- (d) Fruit

II HISTORY

- (a) Where first cultivated
- (b) Early cultivation in general
- (c) Introduction into Europe and the United States

III SPECIES

- (a) Beardless
- (b) Polish
- (c) Spelt

IV PROCESSES OF PRODUCTION

- (a) Planting
- (b) Harvesting
- (c) Threshing
- (d) Milling

V USES

- (a) Food for Human Beings
 - (1) Flour
 - (2) Bran
 - (3) Macaroni
 - (4) Cereals
- (b) Other Products
 - (1) Feed for animals
 - (2) Straw
 - (3) Straw-hoard
 - (4) Paper

VI MARKETS

Questions on Wheat

What is the average yearly production of wheat in the United States?

What are the other leading wheat producing countries in the world?

What proportion of the world's crop does the United States produce?

What machines are used in preparing the soil for wheat?

Who invented the harvester?

With what tool did our forefathers eat their grain?

Name the different varieties of bread that you know.

Which do you consider the best?

Why?

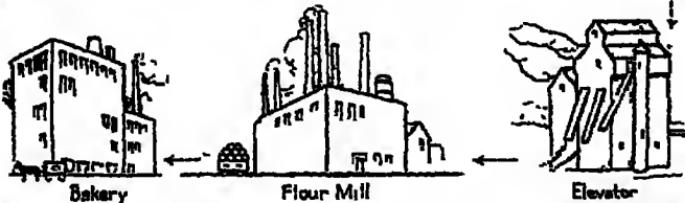
Where are the great wheat regions of Canada?

How long has wheat been known?

Of what region is wheat probably a native plant?



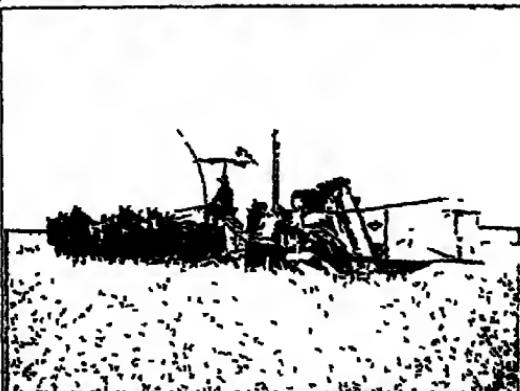
STORY OF A LOAF OF BREAD



Tractor and gang plow preparing the soil for wheat. Wheat is the vital element in the world's food supply. In the first thirty years of the twentieth century the number of wheat eaters increased enormously. But the increased acreage devoted to wheat and the use of modern machinery have more than kept pace with the world's consumption needs. To restore the equilibrium measures have been taken to curtail production and to improve methods of distribution.

Courtesy, International Harvester Co.

The latest type of header, a machine which reaps, threshes, and sacks the grain from forty acres in one day. The story of the development of the reaper is full of interest. Read about Cyrus McCormick and the Reaping Machine. The inventors of agricultural machinery have done more than all governments to stimulate the very rapid increase in the world's population which has taken place in the past one hundred years.



Courtesy International Harvester Co.

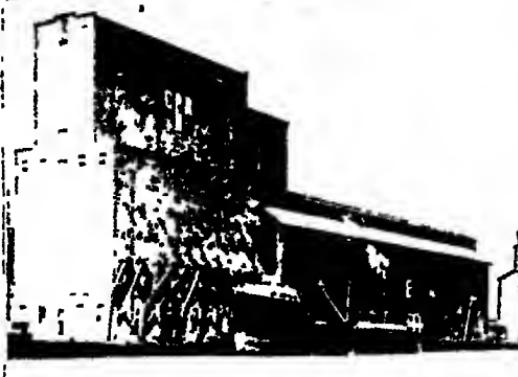


Photo from Associated Press

Great wheat elevators at Fort William, Ont. The faster wheat can be loaded and unloaded the more voyages a vessel can make in a year. How does this help to make bread cheaper? What is the capacity of the world's largest elevator? Read article, "Port Arthur, Ont." One hundred thousand bushels of wheat can be loaded automatically in four hours. The steamer can then go direct to Liverpool or Manchester and be unloaded by great suction pipes in about the same time.

In early times wheat was ground into flour by hand or by horse power, and that is still done in eastern countries. What a slow and laborious process it must be to get flour like this man is doing. Note the path made in the horse walks around and around. Try to imagine our waiting for bread from flour made this way!



Photo from Associated Press Co.



Photo by W. H. Johnson

The purifying room in a big flour mill in Minneapolis, the flour capital of the world. From the time the wheat reaches the top of the mill on an endless conveyor, and passes down on belts and through tubes from floor to floor, until, as barrelled flour, it is rolled out into freight cars at the bottom, every effort is made to have the flour absolutely clean, for it may travel into the tropics and be kept a year or more before being made into bread. It must have good "keeping" qualities.



A stand of breakers where the wheat grains are broken up into the first coarse flour, to be later refined and purified. The whole process of flour making represents the triumph of machinery over hands. Every step is automatic and carefully planned for the doing of the most work in the least time with the smallest use of power.

Sacking and weighing with automatic machines in a Minneapolis mill. The machines are set so that they let down into the container (sack or barrel) only the correct amount of flour, by weight. Endless belts move the tied sacks quickly to storage rooms or to freight cars. These men have no chance to go to sleep on the job. The machines don't wait for anyone.



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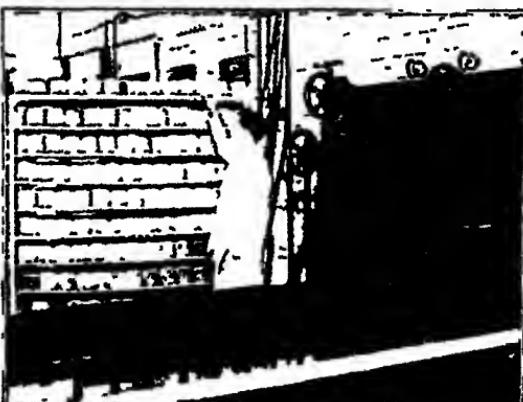
Now we come to the last, or the next to last, great stage of the journey from wheat farm to your table. In the modern bakery, also, machinery does the work. A dough-kneading machine. The dough is now being run into a trough to "rise." All the bread materials, flour, yeast, water, "cream," salt, are weighed carefully and put into the machine from the floor above.



Cuts and shapes

When the dough has "risen" it is dumped down a chute to the shaping machine, which cuts the dough, puts it into the pans, and puts it into shape. In many cities there are laws to regulate the size of loaves of bread, so this machine cuts off just enough of the dough to give a loaf, when baked, of the correct weight.

A peep into an automatic bakery. When the noon hour comes some millions of persons rush—and rush is the word—for food. About fifty-seven varieties of "quick lunch" must be ready on the dot, for the race, the second name of which is "Hustle," can't waste much time in eating. They demand quick action. They get it. To keep hungry America food-natured the baker must be on the job both day and night.



Pies from Underwood & Underwood



How many thousands of loaves of bread do you suppose the people of New York or Montreal eat every day? In hotels, restaurants, and homes wheat bread merits its title, "The Staff of Life." Without machinery the bakers never could keep up with the appetites of busy Americans. The boast of many bakers, "No hands have touched your bread," is true. This machine wraps the loaves.

demand upon the United States for wheat exceeded its supply for exportation. The Food Administration restricted the sale of wheat flour in 1918 and ordered wheatless days in hotels, restaurants and homes. To encourage an increased production of wheat, the government guaranteed the farmers a price of \$2.26 a bushel for the years 1918 and 1919. Canada, Argentina and other countries were also drawn upon for the wheat they could spare for export. White wheat bread contains more nourishment per pound than any other article of food, with the exception of beans, and the scarcity of wheat caused by the war gave every one a slight idea of what a calamity a failure of the wheat crop might bring upon the race.

Uses. The greatest part of the wheat crop is manufactured into flour (which see). By-products of this manufacture include bran, shorts and middlings. Middlings are used extensively in the manufacture of breakfast foods, and bran and shorts are used for feed for stock. Large quantities of starch are also made from wheat. The straw is used for fodder, for bedding in stables, and in the manufacture of straw board and the cheaper grades of wrapping paper.

Wheat Insects. Among the enemies of wheat, those most dreaded are the chinch bug, the Hessian fly and the wheat midge, a small, yellowish insect, with a dark back, related to the Hessian fly, but differing in habits. The wheat midge, which is now common in the Mississippi Valley, probably came from Europe and has occasioned a great deal of damage to wheat, especially in warm and moist seasons. The damage is done by the little orange-yellow larvae, which destroy the embryos of the grain and prevent the heads from filling. As the larvae can live for several months without either moisture or food, they are carried about in the wheat heads, and so the spores are distributed. The chinch bug and Hessian fly are described under their titles.

WHEATSTONE, CHARLES, Sir (1802-1875), an English scientist and inventor. Early in life he began the business of making musical instruments, and in his study of the scientific principle involving their construction he made important discoveries in physics. In 1834 he was appointed professor of experimental physics in King's College, London, and there he made important experiments in electricity, and in collaboration with

an investigator named Cooke, devised an electric telegraph. From this apparatus developed the system of electric telegraphs used in England until 1870. Wheatstone was also the inventor of several other electric appliances, one of which enabled a system of clocks to be regulated from a central clock, by means of electro-magnets.

WHEEL, an instrument of torture, employed by the Greeks and Romans and later in Western Europe. "Breaking on the wheel" was instituted in France in 1634 and was abolished in 1789. Assassins, highwaymen, incendiaries and pillagers of churches were of the classes so punished. There were several modes of wheel torture. Sometimes the victim's bones were broken, and his body was then bent around a wheel, bound and left until death ensued, perhaps in twenty-four hours. To terminate sooner the victim's sufferings the executioner sometimes dealt him two or three heavy blows, called *coups de grâce* (mercy strokes), on the chest or stomach.

WHEEL. See TRANSPORTATION.

WHEEL AND AXLE, a continuous lever of the first class (see LEVER), consisting of a wheel and axle, fastened to the same axis. The radius of the wheel is the power arm, and the radius of the axle, the weight arm, of the lever. The law of equilibrium is that the power multiplied by the radius of the wheel is equal to the weight multiplied by the radius of the axle. In the figure, *A* represents the circumference of the wheel, *C* is the circumference of the axle, *B* the radius of the wheel, and *r* the radius of the axle. If the wheel has a diameter of three feet, and the axle a radius of one foot, a power of one pound will balance a weight of three pounds. In making the computations, the same results are obtained, whether the radius of the wheel is compared with the radius of the axle, or the diameter of the wheel with the diameter of the axle.

The most common use of the wheel and axle is in the windlass, for raising water. Here the crank often takes the place of the wheel, but the device operates on the same principle.



Combination of the wheel and axle in which two wheels ride into one another and are driven by a crank or an endless band, is in machinery where great power is required. Derricks and the shears used for cutting iron bars and plates afford good illustrations of these combinations.

WHEELER, BENJAMIN (1831-1927), American educator, born at Randolph, N.Y. He was educated at Colby Academy and Brown University and spent four years of study in the universities of Leipzig, Heidelberg, Jena and Berlin. He taught in the Providence High School, Brown University and Harvard and in 1866 became a professor in Cornell University, holding, successively, the chair of comparative philology and Greek.



BENJAMIN IDE
WHEELER

From 1869 to 1919 he was president of the University of California. His written works include *Analogy and the Scope of its Application in Language*, *Introduction to the Study of the History of Language and Principles of Language Growth*.

WHEELER, JOSEPH (1836-1906), an American soldier, born at Augusta, Ga. He was educated at the West Point Military Academy, was appointed lieutenant of cavalry and served in New Mexico. When the Civil War broke out he joined the Confederate army. He was rapidly promoted, attaining the rank of colonel and served in New Mexico. He took part in the battle of Shiloh, rendered distinguished service at Chancellorsville and impeded Sherman on his march through Georgia, Ga. and South Carolina. After the war he settled in Alabama, and in 1869 he was sent to Compton. He was reelected to Congress until 1873, when he received the United States Army as a regiment of volunteers to the great defeat of all Atomics, with command at the



JOSEPH WHEELER

territory in the Army of Santiago. He rendered valiant service in the battles of Las Guasimas and San Juan Hill, and was senior member of the commission which arranged for the surrender of Santiago. Later he served in the Philippines, until he was retired in 1900.

WHEELER, WILLIAM ALMON (1810-1857), an American statesman, born at Malone, Franklin County, N.Y. He studied for a time at the University of Vermont, studied law in his native town and was admitted to the bar. Later he engaged in banking. He was a member of the state legislature for two terms, and in 1850 he was sent to Congress, where he served continuously until 1857. He was nominated for the Vice-Presidency by the Republican party in 1856 and was elected with President Hayes. He returned to Malone at the expiration of his term in 1851. Wheeler rendered invaluable service to his country during reconstruction days by his conciliatory attitude as chairman of the committee on Southern affairs.

WHEELING, W. Va., the first city of the state, county seat of Ohio County, sixty-three miles southwest of Pittsburgh, Pa., on the Ohio River and on the Pennsylvania, the Baltimore & Ohio and the Wheeling & Lake Erie railroads. One ward of the city is built on Zane's Island in the river, the island being connected with the main part of the city by bridges, one of them a suspension bridge more than 1,800 feet long. There is water commerce in iron ore, produce, fruit, cattle and poultry. The main manufactures are steel, glass and tobacco products. The city has one of the largest electric power plants in the world. A unique feature is the Market-Auditorium, which contains an up-to-date market and a convention hall. There are a Federal building, a courthouse, a public library and four hospitals. Educational institutions include the Ladd Institute for boys and the Mount de Chanté School for girls. A normal school and Bethany College are not far distant.

Wheeling was settled by Ebenezer Zane in 1770, and was the first town on the Ohio River. It was incorporated in 1806, and was chartered as a city in 1830. Fort Henry was built here in 1777. The people of Virginia who were opposed to secession met here in 1861 at the Wheeling Convention and established "the re-formed government of Virginia." The Constitutional Convention of

West Virginia also met in Wheeling, and the city was the state capital from 1863 to 1870 and from 1875 to 1885. The commission form of government was adopted in 1917. Population, 1920, 56,203; in 1930, 51,658, a gain of 9.7 per cent.

WHIG, in English history, the name formerly applied to the political party advocating changes in the constitution in the direction of democracy. The term is of Scottish origin, but was early brought to England, where it was used as the name of the political party opposed to the *Tories*, or government party. The term *Liberals* is now generally applied to the representatives of the party formerly known as *Whigs*.

The Whig party in the United States opposed the Democratic party from about 1835 to 1866, when the Northern wing of the Whigs was merged in the new Republican party. See POLITICAL PARTIES IN THE UNITED STATES.

WHIPPOORWILL, a North American bird of the goatsucker family. The name is an imitation of the bird's peculiar call of three shrill notes ending in a rising inflection.



WHIP-POOR-WILL

This weird cry is repeated many times in close succession. The whippoorwill makes its home in the midst of thick woods, rarely venturing the haunts of men. It is active at night, feeding on night insects, which it catches on the wing. During the day it sits lengthwise on a limb, where, owing to its mottled plumage, it is not easily seen.

WHIRLPOOL, *whirl'pool*, a body of turbulent water with a spiral movement due to the shape of its channel, to meeting currents or to the conflict of winds and tides. Small whirlpools occur in rivers and are caused either by the forcing of the current into a circular core in the channel or by an opening in the bank of the stream which draws the water down to a lower level. Sometimes the position of rocks and the di-

rection of currents in the sea cause large and dangerous whirlpools. The most noted of these is the *Maelstrom*, off the coast of Norway, and the *Charybdis*, near Sicily. The most celebrated river whirlpool is that of the Niagara River, below the falls.

WHIRLWIND, a sudden and swift spiral movement of the free air of the atmosphere, either the small eddy of the city street which whirls leaves and dust and other light objects about in it, or the more extensive whirrils of the deserts and plains. Very powerful whirlwinds are called cyclones or tornadoes. Whirlwinds are caused by the meeting of currents of air, or the collision of currents moving in opposite directions, and except in the case of the small eddies, they all take the same direction—counter clockwise in the northern hemisphere, and clockwise in the southern hemisphere, being governed by the vast planetary movements of the atmosphere. See CYCLONE, TORNADO.

WHISKY, a spirituous liquor, distilled chiefly from the fermented mash of cereal grains. There are two main varieties of whisky, called malt whisky, in which malt predominates, and grain whisky, in which unmalted grains predominate. The latter was formerly manufactured almost exclusively in the United States, rye and Indian corn being chiefly employed.

In the making of whisky several processes are necessary to convert the starch of the grain into sugar and the sugar into alcohol. The grain is ground, and the starch is cooked in a steamer for several hours to render it soluble. It is then added to the malt, and the mixture is kept at a temperature of 145° F. for about four hours. This saccharine infusion, called *wort*, is then drawn off, yeast is added, and the wort is allowed to stand from three to nine days to ferment. The liquid thus prepared for distillation is technically known as *mash*. It is placed in a metal container called a *still*, subjected to high temperature, and the vapors pass off through a spiral tube known as a *worm* and are condensed. Whiskey requires a period of storage in wooden casks to bring about the changes which develop its aroma and make it palatable.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:
Distillation Prohibition
Malt

WHISKY INSURRECTION, the name given to a revolt against the Federal govern-

ment in Western Pennsylvania in 1794. It was the result of the excise law passed by Congress in 1791, imposing a tax on whisky. This was a peculiarly heavy burden to the people of Western Pennsylvania, most of whom were dependent for support largely upon the manufacture of whisky. They successfully resisted the attempts of the government to collect the tax and brughtly rejected the offer of amnesty in return for a promise of submission. Finally, in October, 1794, Washington sent 15,000 militia to the scene of the disturbance, and the insurrectionists promptly surrendered. Two of the leaders were found guilty of treason, but President Washington pardoned them.

WHISKY BING, a term given in American literature to a combination of distillers and Federal revenue collector, who in Grant's administration conspired to defraud the government of the excise tax on whisky. This "bing" began operations in Saint Louis, where the revenue officers, having knowledge of technical violations of the law, blackmailed the distillers, under threats of prosecution. The decline in the revenue receipts was immediately noticeable, but all efforts at finding the conspirators failed, on account of the presence of their friends in the Treasury Department at Washington. It was only after the most thorough investigation by Benjamin H. Bristow, Secretary of the Treasury, that evidence sufficient to convict was found. The disclosures implicated the chief clerk of the Treasury Department and O. E. Babcock, President Grant's principal secretary, but neither was convicted. About two hundred forty distillers and revenue officers pleaded guilty or were convicted in court, but most of the leading ones were paroled. The total amount of which the government was defrauded was \$1,650,000.

WHIST, a well-known game in cards, first clearly described by Edmond Hoyle, in his *Short Treatise on the Game of Whist* (1742). The game is played with the full pack of fifty-two cards by four persons, two being partners against the other two, each player having thirteen cards, dealt out one by one in rotation. The last card dealt is turned face up and is called the trump card; it gives a special power to the suit to which it belongs. The cards rank, ace (high card), king, queen, bravo, and the others rank according to the number of spots. Play is commenced by the person on the left hand

of the dealer, who lays down a card face up on the table; the other players follow in succession, with cards of the same suit, if they have them. When all have played, the player who has laid the highest card takes the four cards laid down, which constitute a trick. The winner of the trick then leads, as the first of a new trick, the winner of which becomes the leader, and so on. When a player cannot play a card of the same suit, he may play one of the trump suit and take the trick, or he may lay one of a different suit, which gives him no chance of winning the trick. When the hand is played out, the score is taken as follows. The partners who jointly gain the majority of tricks score 1 point for every trick taken above six. The ace, king, queen and knave of the trump suit are called honors, in some systems of play, and count 1 each for the side who holds them, if one side hold three honors, they count 2 by honors, as the opposite side can have but one honor, if one side hold all the honors, 4 by honors is counted, should the honors be equally divided, neither side counts. In long whist, ten of these points make a game. In short whist, the number has been reduced to five, and in this form it is common to count by tricks alone. A rubber consists of a series of three games and is won by the side that secures two of them. In duplicate whist the game is played with as many sets of cards as desired. Each hand, as it is played, is held aside, and at the close of the series of games the hands are exchanged, so that each game is played a second time, partners playing the hands of their opponents. The side that makes the greater number of points in the series wins.

Auction Whist, or **Auction**, or it is now commonly called, is a development of the game of whist, following a process of evolution, the first stage of which was known as Bridge Whist, or Bridge, now practically discarded. The game is played with a full pack of fifty-two cards, as in whist, by four persons, two being partners against the other two, and the cards having the same value as in whist. The trump suit is determined by bidding, the dealer having the first bid. Each player may bid or pass to the player on his left, as the strength of his hand warrants. The value of the suits, both for bidding and for counting in the score, is: Clubs, 6; Diamonds, 7; Hearts, 8; Spades, 9. A player may bid "No Trump," in which case

WHIST

and if so played, all suits have an equal value, and each trick over six counts 10. For example, if a player bids, "one heart," indicating he is prepared to play the hand with hearts as trumps, and to make seven or more tricks, the next bidder must bid "one spade," "one no trump," these bids indicating a higher value, or "two" or more of same suit, which means a larger prospective gain than "one heart," if successful. The player making the highest bid secures the privilege of playing the hand at his choice of trump, or "no trump." The player at the left of the successful bidder (the "declarer") leads the first card, and the declarer's partner places his hand face up on the table, in view of all the players. The declarer plays the exposed hand as well as his own.

Scoring. Each trick over six (a "book") counts, with clubs, six points, with diamonds, seven points, with hearts, eight points, with spades, nine points, with no trumps, ten points. The side first scoring 30 points wins the game. Two games won out of three constitute a rubber.

Honors	Cubs	Diamonds	Hearts	Spades	No trump
Three honors, called "Simple"	30	30	30	30	30
Four honors, in two hands	40	40	40	40	40
Four honors, in one hand	50	50	50	50	50
Four honors, in one hand and fifth in partner's hand	60	60	60	60	60
Five honors, in one hand	100	100	100	100	100

Besides the point score, which determines games and rubbers, an "honor" score is kept, and is added in when the final score is reckoned up at the end of the rubber to determine the winner. The honor cards are the ace, king, queen, knave (or jack) and ten of the trump suit. If the declaration is "no trumps," the four aces are counted honors. Contract Bridge, or Contract. This is a development of Auction, differing from the latter in two important respects: (1) in the bidding, the object is to contract, if possible, for game or slam, the successful declarer not being entitled to claim on his point score more than he bids, and suffering a penalty if he fails to make his contract; (2) the scoring is in much larger figures than in Auction, and the penalties for failure to make the bid are much more severe. In bidding, the value of the suits follows the same order as in Auction, but in counting points, clubs and diamonds are known as minor suits,

counting 20 each, hearts and spades as major suits, counting 30 each. 100 points constitute game. The method of play and the rules are set forth in convenient manuals prepared by leading exponents of the game.

WHISTLER, James Abbott Monroe (1834-1903), an American painter and etcher. He was born at Lowell, Mass., of a prominent family, his father being a distinguished engineer in the United States army. The son was sent to West Point Military Academy, but after three years of un congenial study he turned to art. He studied in France and England, and at an early age established a reputation as an etcher, taking rank with the greatest of etchers, Rembrandt. He became famous also for his paintings, pastels and lithograph drawings, which were marked by a unique originality. As a draughtsman Whistler was a consummate master, but in his pictures form was subordinated to color.

Whistler called his paintings nocturnes, symphonies, arrangements. They were executed in one color tone or two related tones, always in a subdued key. His London scenes, under cover of the night or fog, Venetian sketches and studies of the sea, are expressions of poetic moods rather than representations of actual scenes. Whistler's eccentricities brought him into continual conflict with artists and critics, who learned to fear his keen wit and incisive satire.

After 1859 Whistler lived chiefly in London and was for a time president of the Royal Society of British Artists. His best-known painting is a portrait of his mother, in the Luxembourg gallery, Paris. His etchings and paintings form a part of the permanent collections of all the greatest galleries. The best collection of his work is in the National Gallery, Washington, D. C. The artist possessed an unusual gift of literary expression and wrote, among other things, *Ten O'clock*, and *The Gentle Art of Making Enemies*. **WHITE**, according to the theory of color, is that color which is a combination of all the colors of the solar spectrum—violet, indigo, blue, green, yellow, orange and red. The observer watching a beam of sunlight passing through a glass prism can see these colors, and they are also beautifully apparent in the rainbow. In practical usage a pure white pigment cannot be obtained by mixing together pigments corresponding to the seven spectrum colors, for pure pigments cannot be secured. Though white is called a color,

white; it's a picture of all colors. See COLOR; LIGHT.

WHITE AND DICKSON (1832-1915), an American editor, a poet and diplomat, born at New York, N. Y. He was educated at Yale, at a College of France and the University of Berlin. For a time he was professor of history and literature in the University of Michigan, and when Cornell University was founded he became its first president. He retired from the post after eighteen years, and when he died he bequeathed to the university his historical library of 30,000 volumes. In recognition of this and other services the departments of history and classics at Cornell were reorganized as the White School of History and Political Science.

In the course of his college presidency Dr. White rendered important service to the government. He obtained leave of absence and was United States minister to Germany from 1870 to 1881. After he severed his connection with the university, he served the government in several important diplomatic posts as minister to Russia, as one of the commissioners to investigate the Venezuela boundary, for five years as ambassador to Germany, and as president of the United States delegation to the Hague Peace Conference.

He was the author of numerous works on political and diplomatic subjects and of a number of magazine articles. Among his most important works are *The Warfare of Science against Theology*, *Studies in General History*, *the New Germany*, *the European Schools of History*, *Chapters from My Diplomatic Life and Seven Great Statesmen*.

WHITE, LEWIS STANLEY DODGE (1845-1921), an American jurist. Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court. He was born at Louisville, Ky., educated at Mount Saint Mary's in Maryland, at the Jesuit College in New Orleans and at Georgetown (D. C.) College. He served during the Civil War in the Confederate army, after the war studied law, was admitted to the bar, entered politics and was state senator from 1871 to 1873. From 1873 to 1876 he was an associate justice of the Louisiana Supreme Court. In 1876 he was appointed Associate Justice of the Louisiana Supreme Court, becoming chief justice in 1880, by appointment of President T. A.

WHITE, RICHARD GRANT (1821-1885), an American scholar and critic. He was educated for the law, but his literary tendencies drew him from a legal career, and his writings on Shakespeare soon made him recognized as one of the most prominent of Shakespearean scholars. Among his works are *Words and Their Uses*, *Everyday English*, *England Without and Within*, *Studies in Shakespeare*. His *Riverside Edition of Shakespeare* has had wide popularity.

WHITE, STEWART EDWARD (1873-), an American novelist, born in Grand Rapids, Mich., and educated at the University of Michigan. He spent his boyhood among the rivermen of Michigan and early acquired a liking for the forest, which he has so vividly described in *The Forest*. He has written short stories, as well as novels. Among his latest books are *Lions in the Path*, *Back of Beyond*, *Why Be a Mudhurtle*, *The Long Rifle Ranchero*, and *Dog Days*. His most famous books were *The Blazed Trail* and *The Leopold Woman*.

WHITE, WILLIAM ALLEN (1868-), an American journalist and writer, born at Emporia, Kans., and educated at Emporia College and the University of Kansas. In 1893 he became owner and editor of the *Emporia Gazette*, which became under his management noted for the excellence of its policies and editorials, one of which, "What's the Matter with Kansas," gained wide publicity. In 1912 White served as chairman of publicity of the Progressive National Committee. He is a member of the National Institute of Arts and Letters. As a penetrating observer and critic of the times White holds a foremost position. His books are not numerous, but are of the very highest quality. Most of them are stories and sketches of life in the Middle West, and include *The Real Issue*, *The Court of Boynville*, *Stratagems and Spies*, *In Our Town*, *A Certain Rich Man*, *God's Puppets*, *In the Heart of a Fool* and *The Martial Adventures of Henry and Vic*, and *The Old Order Changeth*. In 1925 he published a *Life of Woodrow Wilson*, which was well received.

WHITE ANT. See TERMITES.

WHITECAPS, in United States history, a name applied, because of the manner of their occurrence, to a body of men who assumed the punishment of offenses against a community. In 1880 lawless bands in Southern Indiana undertook to control that section

At an earlier date a band calling themselves the Knights of the Golden Circle was active in the same district. Whiteboys adopted all methods, from warning and intimidation to actual violence. The Whiteboys were not able long to continue their activities. The chief reason for the rise of such organizations is the slowness with which the law is often administered and the injustice arising therefrom.

WHITEFIELD, *whit'feld*, George (1714-1770), an English evangelist, founder of the Calvinistic Methodists, born at Gloucester, England. At the age of eighteen he entered, as servant, Pembroke College, Oxford. There he met the Wesleys, and became active in their organization, called derisively the "Holy Club." After his ordination as deacon he followed the Wesleys to America, but soon returned to England to raise money for an orphanage in Georgia. Subsequently he made six trips to America, preaching in Georgia, Pennsylvania, and New England. He preached in England, Scotland and Wales, and is said to have delivered 12,000 sermons. His Calvinistic doctrines separated him from the Episcopal Church and ultimately from the Wesleys, and in 1743 he founded the Calvinistic Methodist Society, which, owing to its loose organization, disintegrated after the founder's death, which occurred at Newburyport, Mass. The members joined the followers of Wesley, from which nucleus grew the denomination known as Methodists. See *WESLEY*.

WHITEFISH, a very important freshwater food fish of the salmon family, found in northern waters of both hemispheres. The common whitefish has an elongated body, with a hump back. The head is small and conical and the mouth toothless. Above, the color is bluish or olive, underneath, silvery. These fish live in deep water, feeding on mollusks, insects and larvae, but in the spawning season they migrate to shallow water in shoals. The common whitefish found in the Great Lakes is the most important freshwater fish in America. The yield of this fish for a single year in that country and Canada has been more than 80,000,000 pounds, valued at \$1,000,000. So important is the industry that the United States Fish Commission has taken measures to promote the propagation of these fish.

WHITE HOUSE, called also the Executive Mansion, the residence of the President

of the United States, at Washington. It is on Pennsylvania Avenue, near several government administration buildings, and it is surrounded by a fine park. The first house on the site was occupied by President Adams in 1800. In 1814 the British army burned it, and the present building was completed in 1829. Extensive interior modifications have been made, and the building has been finished, practically according to the plans of the architect, James Hoban, who designed it in 1792. It faces toward the Potomac, though the entrance on Pennsylvania Avenue is the one in general use. The mansion is of freestone painted white, and is built in the colonial style, with long wings and an Ionic porch. On the second floor are the private apartments of the President and his family. Below are reception rooms, including the large East Room, in which public receptions are held, the Blue Room, in which diplomats making social calls are received, the Red Room, the Green Room, the State dining room and the conservatory. An important and needed addition to the building is a long wing containing the business offices of the President and his secretaries.

WHITE LEAD, a heavy white powder consisting of seventy-five per cent white lead and twenty-five per cent hydrated lead oxide. It is used extensively in the manufacture of white paint, and is prepared by several processes, that most generally employed being what is called the Dutch, or stock, process. Coals of lead are placed in the upper part of an earthen pot containing nitric acid. These pots are stacked, covered with fermenting tan bark or manure, and allowed to remain so for two or three months, in the course of which time the metal is changed to a white powder, known as white lead. In the French process a borax salt of lead is prepared, and from it borax carbonate is precipitated by means of carbon dioxide. There are several other processes, some of them electric. White lead is valuable as a pigment, because it has body and purity of color. It dries quickly and does not crack. Its poisonous quality should not be lost sight of.

WHITE MOUNTAINS, a short range of the Appalachian system, situated in the north-central part of New Hampshire, extending approximately northeast and southwest. Because of their lofty summits these mountains are called the "top of New England."

The range extends upon a plateau about four thousand miles long, thirty miles wide and 1,600 feet above sea level. Upon this elevation more than forty peaks rise to varying heights. Some of these are separated from one another by narrow valleys, called passes. The mountains are clustered in two groups, of which the eastern is generally known as the White Mountains, and the western, as the Franconia Mountains. These groups are separated by a tableland, varying in width from ten to twenty miles. The principal peaks in the White Mountains are in the Presidential range, so named from the name of the peaks. Of these, Mount Washington, 6,283 feet, is the highest and is also the second highest in the Appalachian system. The other important peaks are Adams, Jefferson, Clay, Monroe, Madison and Boot Spar, all of which exceed 5,000 feet, while Franklin, Pleasant, Clinton and Webster have altitudes of 4,000 feet or more. In the Franconia group the most prominent peaks are Lafayette, 5,269 feet, and Mount Lincoln, Liberty and Profile, all exceeding 5,000 feet. Intermingled with these prominent peaks in each group are numerous other lesser summits.

The White Mountains are traversed by the famous Crawford Notch, a narrow defile, lined with walls 2,000 feet high, through which the Saco River winds its way toward the sea. The other objects of special interest in this group of mountains are Tuckerman's Ravine, a deep gorge on the south side of Mount Washington, which is always partially filled with snow, and the summit of Mount Washington, which is reached both by carriage road and by railway, the first cog wheel railway in the world. On the summit are a hotel and a station of the United States Weather Bureau.

The principal object of interest in the Franconia Mountains is the Profile, or Old Man of the Mountain. This is a representation of the human face, formed by the projection of three rocks from the face of a steep perpendicular cliff on the crest of Cannon or Profile Mountain. One rock forms the forehead, the second, the nose and mouth, and the third, the chin. The profile is about 1,500 ft. above the road from which it is seen, and it is nearly 50 ft. in length. It looks out upon a beautiful little lake known as the "Old man's -er- bowl." It was an object of wonder in the industry for centuries

before it was known to white men, and it is supposed to have given Hawthorne the inspiration which enabled him to write his beautiful allegory, *The Great Stone Face*. Near by is Echo Lake, a beautiful sheet of water, so enclosed by hills that an ordinary tone of the voice is repeated five times.

The summits of the White Mountains are bare and are composed of a variety of rock known as mica schist. The reflection of the sunlight upon this rock when seen at a distance, gives the mountains the appearance of being covered with snow, hence the name, White Mountains or White Hills. For a century these mountains have been the great playground of New England. Their bases and sides are clothed with forests, among which are many winding roads and enticing walks. Clear, rushing streams and sparkling cascades surprise the traveler at many a turn in the path, and summits easily reached afford enchanting views.

WHITE PLAINS, BATTLE OF. When Washington evacuated Long Island he moved his main force to White Plains, N. Y., on October 23, 1776. An outpost of 1,400 men was stationed on Chatterton Hill. On this outpost a British force of 4,000 made attack on October 28, routing the Americans, who withdrew to the main camp. This engagement is known as the Battle of White Plains.

WHITE RIVER, the principal tributary of the Wabash in Indiana. It is formed by the union of the East and West branches, which rise near the eastern boundary of the state and flow in a general westerly direction. The two streams unite near Petersburg, and the main stream then flows southwest for fifty miles and joins the Wabash just above Mount Carmel, Ill. On the West Fork are situated Indianapolis, the state capital, Noblesville, Anderson and Martinsville, the latter at the head of navigation. The East Fork is navigable to Rockford.

WHITE RIVER, a river of Arkansas, which rises in the northwestern part of the state, in the Ozark Mountains, where it is formed by several small streams, and flows northward into Missouri, returns into Arkansas and, after a general southeasterly and southerly course, enters the Mississippi fourteen miles above the mouth of the Arkansas. Its length is about 800 miles. Locks and dams make it navigable for river steamers about 150 miles. The large towns on its banks are Clarendon, Batesville and Newport.

WHITE SEA

3557

WHITNEY

WHITE SEA, a large arm of the Arctic Ocean, which penetrates Northern Russia to a distance of about 500 miles. The width ranges from thirty-five to 150 miles. It is broad at the northern entrance, but near its middle it narrows to a strait. Below this it spreads out in three large branches—Kandalak Bay, in the northwest, and Onega and Dwina bays, in the southeast. The chief rivers flowing into it are the Onega, the Dwina and the Mezen. Onega and Archangel are the principal ports. This sea is ice-bound from September to June, but it has a brisk summer trade, being connected by canals with the Baltic and with the Black and Caspian seas.

WHITLOCK, BRAND (1868-1934), an American diplomat, municipal reformer, and writer. He was born at Urbana, Ohio, and was privately educated there. In his early years he had much experience as a newspaper reporter in Toledo, Ohio, and Chicago, Ill. He studied law, and in 1897 established a successful practice in Toledo. His books describing corruption in politics and mysticism in business attracted much attention. In 1905 he was elected mayor of Toledo. In three times thereafter, but declined a fifth nomination. In 1913 he was appointed a fifth President Wilson United States minister to Belgium, and in that position gained the admiration of the world at the beginning of the World War through the tact, energy and efficiency shown in handling the difficult situation. In 1919 his post was raised to the rank of ambassador. His writings include *The Happy Average*, *Her Infants' Variety*, *The Fall Guy*, a volume of short stories, *On the Enforcement of Laws in Other Countries*, *The Gold Brick*, *Abraham Lincoln*, a biography, *Forty Years of It*, an autobiography. In 1919 he published *Memoirs of Belgium*, a personal narrative, later issued in America under the title *Belgium*. His novel *Transplanted and Uprooted* is based on his observations in Europe. *LeFayette*, a biography, appeared in 1929.

WHITMAN, MARCUS (1802-1847), an American physician and missionary, born at Rushville, N.Y. He studied medicine at the Berkshire Medical Institution at Pittsfield, Mass., practiced four years in Canada, and in 1836 was sent by the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions to explore the Oregon country and preach to the Indians. With his wife and two other

missionaries he crossed the Rocky Mountains in 1836, taking the first wagon over the mountains. Other missionaries followed the same route, among them led the Board to withdraw its support, Whitman journeyed from the settlement, near the site of Walla Walla, to Boston, traveling much of the way on foot, and prevailed upon the Board to alter its decision. Whitman, his wife and twelve companions were murdered by Indians in 1847.

WHITMAN, WALTER (1819-1892), an American poet, born at West Hills, Long Island, N.Y. He left the public schools of Brooklyn at the age of thirteen and applied himself to his father's trade, that of carpenter. Later he worked as a printer, school teacher and as general writer for the press. In these early years, as later, he sought with characteristic democracy the society of working men, and had many friends among them. During the Civil War he gave splendid service in the hospitals of Virginia and Washington, and permanently injured his health. At the close of the war he became a clerk in the Interior and Treasury departments at Washington, remaining until 1874, when a stroke of paralysis compelled him to resign. In 1855 the first edition of his *Leaves of Grass* had been issued, and much of his later life was given up to the enlargement of this originally small volume. Whitman's avowed purpose was to be the prophet of democracy and of the common brotherhood of man. In his desire to free himself from all traditional trammels and to solve naturalism, he often becomes tiresome. Though his work shocks many lovers of poetry by its lack of rhyme and rhythm, among discriminating critics it takes high rank, and it is becoming increasingly popular, not only among American readers, but also in Europe.

WHITNEY, ELIZ (1765-1825), an American inventor, famous as the originator of the cotton gin. He was born at Westborough, Mass., and was educated at Yale College. After graduation he went to Georgia as a teacher; later he took up the study of law. His leisure moments he often employed inventing useful devices, and learning that the cotton industry was hampered by the difficult work of separating the cotton fiber from the seeds by hand, he set to work to invent a remedy. He labored under great disadvantage, for he had to make his own tools, but in time he produced a machine which would seed a thousand pounds in

the time that fire could be seeded by hand.

At the junction the workshop was broken into and the apparatus was stolen before he could secure a patent. However, he and a man named Miller formed a partnership, and in 1793 they went to Connecticut to manufacture a cotton gin, but the law suit, in defense of Whitney's rights, took all his profits, besides \$50,000, which left him in the state of South Carolina. Finally, in 1795, Whitney turned his attention to the manufacture of firearms; he established a factory at Whitneyville, Conn., received his first orders from the government and made a fortune. From his invention of the cotton gin, one of the most important of the whole series of inventions connected with the cotton industry, he reaped only belated fame. See COTTON GIN.

WHITNEY, JAMES PELT, Sir (1843-1911), a Canadian statesman, born at Wilmotburg, Ont., and educated at the Cornwall grammar school. He began the practice of law in 1876, and in 1890 was appointed queen's counsel. He was first elected to the legislature of Ontario in 1888, and was returned at each election up to and including that of 1908. In 1896 he was chosen leader of the opposition, and in 1903 was called upon to form a new government. In this he became the Prime Minister and assumed the office of Attorney-General. Later he relinquished the latter portfolio and became president of the Council. The honor of knighthood was conferred upon him by King Edward VII of Wales, in 1908, on the occasion of the celebration of the Quebec Tercentenary. He continued as Premier until 1911, died.

WHITNEY, Mount, the highest peak in the United States proper, situated in the eastern part of the Colorado Sierra Nevada. Its altitude is 14,502 feet, and its name, though, is derived from the height of nearly 11,800 feet. Mount Whitney was named in honor of the noted geologist, Josiah Dwight Whitney.



ELI WHITNEY



JOHN GREENLEAF WHITTIER

WHITIER, JOHN GREENLEAF (1807-1892), one of the foremost American poets. He was born near the town of Haverhill, Mass., Dec. 17, 1807. His parents were Quakers, who were always anxious to advance the interests of their children. The farm house was not far from the Merrimac River and near it was the brook whose "liquid lip" was companionship to them.

The young Whittier worked on his father's farm and learned the shoemaker's trade. He had little early education, except a few terms in the district school, and the wider training he received from his father and mother. Of books he had few and those not the best adapted to a child. The Bible, however, was thoroughly studied and its literary treasures fully appreciated. A volume of Burns fell into his hand and gave him the poetic inspiration. At the age of eighteen Whittier began writing for the press. One of his poems which appeared in the Newburyport *Free Press* attracted the attention of William Lloyd Garrison, its editor. Garrison visited the young poet at his home and induced him to give his pen and his life to the cause of freedom. This was the beginning of a life-long friendship. Garrison urged Whittier to obtain a better education, and assisted him in securing it.

Although Whittier had had comparatively little schooling, he had read widely and was well fitted to become, as he did, the chief poet of the abolition movement. In 1835 and 1836 he was a member of the legislature of Massachusetts, but ill health compelled him to resign and give up also the editorship of a paper which he was managing. In 1836 he moved to Amesbury, and some years later he went to Philadelphia, where he edited the *Pennsylvania Freeman*, an anti-slavery paper, the office of which was burned by a mob after he had been at work on it but four days. This did not compel Whittier, however, to give up the work, which he continued for two years. After his return to Amesbury, his poems on freedom continued to appear, and in 1843 a volume of ballads was published. Among his notable poems of these

years, which appeared in *The National Era*, the *New England Magazine* and the *Atlantic Monthly*, were *Songs of Labor*, *Maud Muller* and *Barbara Fritchie Snowbound*, published in 1885, brought great increase to Whittier's popularity and also an improvement in his worldly circumstances. He had no family, however, and most of his money was spent in charity. He died while on a visit to Hampton Falls, N. H.

Whittier's poems on slavery were too thoroughly inspired by the occasion for which they were written, too much given over to argument on this subject, to be permanently great poetry, but their energy and sincerity made them most effective aids toward the ends to which they were directed. Among his other poems, *The Barefoot Boy*, *Telling the Bees*, *Snowbound* and *Among the Hills* are most notable. They have a homely truth to life, a fineness of sentiment, a freshness and a quiet power which will make them live.

WHOOPING-COUGH, *hooping' koo'*, or pertussis, a contagious disease that frequently becomes epidemic. Half of those affected are less than 2 years old, adults rarely have it. It begins with the symptoms of a mild bronchitis. After a week or ten days the coughing is in paroxysms that end with a whoop, caused by a forcible in-drawing of the breath. These paroxysms occur at rather short intervals, but between them the person feels reasonably well. After three to six weeks the attacks occur less frequently. Within two months they usually disappear entirely, although an ordinary cough persists for a few weeks longer. The disease is probably caused by a bacterium, the *Bacillus Pertussis*. It is sometimes fatal in infants because of complications, especially pneumonia. A child suspected of having whooping-cough should be kept from other children, for the disease is highly contagious. The patient should have nourishing food and live in the open air as much as possible. The sleeping room should be well ventilated, and whenever possible it is wise to sleep on a porch or in a tent.

WICHITA, *wich'-ta*, KANZ., the county seat of Sedgwick County, 157 miles southwest of Topeka, on the Arkansas River and on the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe, the Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific, the Saint Louis-San Francisco, the Missouri Pacific and the Midland Valley railroads. There are five airports and landing fields. Wichita is

surrounded by a rich agricultural region with extensive trade in farm products.

It is the largest broom corn market in the world. Dry storage space amounts to 367,000 square feet, and cold storage space to 1,300,000 cubic feet. The wholesale business of the city amounts normally to about \$175,000,000 annually. It includes automotive products, drugs and chemicals, dry goods and clothing, farm products, food and tobacco, furniture and house furnishings, electrical and radio equipment and farm machinery. Wichita is the oil headquarters of Kansas. The several local airplane factories are widely-known pioneers in aviation engineering.

Notable institutions and buildings are Friends University, the Municipal University of Wichita, the Exposition and Forum with a seating capacity of 8,000, the Manoma Home and the Carnegie Library. Wichita was settled by Indian traders in 1869 and named from the Wichita tribe. It was chartered as a city in 1872. The city manager form of government was adopted in 1917. Population in 1930, 111,110, a gain of 54 per cent in 10 years.

WICHITA FALLS, Tex., the county seat of Wichita County, 114 miles northwest of Fort Worth on the Wichita River and on the Fort Worth & Denver City, the Missouri-Kansas-Texas, the Wichita Falls & Southern and the Wichita Valley railroads. It has a municipal airport. The principal industries are oil refining, oil machinery, glass products, clothing and flour. There is a junior college. The city was settled in 1882. The population in 1930 was 43,090.

WIDGEON, *wij'un*, a wild duck found in both Europe and America. The American widgeon, which is most abundant in the



WIDGEONS

South, is often called the bald pate, from the white on the top of its head. It spends the winters in Central and South America and nests in Canada. The eggs, from seven to

trees in number, are buff-white. Widgeons are notorious for their trick of robbing herons, and other diving ducks of the plant food picked from the beds of streams, by snapping it from their bills as they come up out of the water.

WIESBADEN, *vee'ba den*, GERMANY, a well-to-do watering place situated in the valley of the Salzbach about two miles from Frankfurt, and six miles northwest of Mainz. The town has a beautiful location among steep wooded hills, that protect it from cold winds. Mineral springs abound. It is purely a residence town, with no industry of importance. There are a number of shrines of historic interest, a museum, a picture gallery, a public library, agricultural and industrial schools and an institution for the blind. Population, 1933, 159,765.

WIGGIN, *Kate Douglas* See *Ridge, Kate Douglas Wiggin*

WIGHT, *isle*, Isle or See Isle of Wight

WIGWAM, the conical tent of the American Indian. To make it he drives several spears into the ground in a circle and fastens them together at the top. This framework is covered with grass matting or birch bark, leaving an opening at the top for the escape of smoke. A small opening in the side allows the side of the rising sun—*i.e.*, or a door. This is ordinarily covered with a flapping deer skin curtain.

WILBERFORCE, *wil'bur fôrс*, SAWTEL (1605-1673), an English clergyman, third son of William Wilberforce (see below), was born at Clapham. He was graduated from Oriel College in 1626 and two years later was ordained. He was successively curate of Cheelenden church; rector of Brightling, Isle of Wight, archdeacon of Lewes, rector of Alfriston and canon of Winchester. Emissary to the prince, a position gained through an anti-slavery speech; dean of Westmister and bishop of Oxford, where he remained twenty-four years. Wilberforce, by his eloquence and persuasive power, was able to cope with the difficult task of saving the Church at the enunciation of the Oxford Movement, when many of the High Church party had given over to the Roman Catholic Church. Among his writings are *Letters of Dr. John of Henry Martyn Against the Anti-Slavery and History of the American Church*.

WILBERFORCE, *Wil'm* (1759-1833), an English statesman and philanthropist, born at Hull, in Yorkshire. After completing his education at Saint John's College Cambridge, in 1780 he was elected member of Parliament. In 1792 he succeeded in getting a bill for the gradual abolition of slavery through the House of Commons, but it was rejected by the House of Lords. Year after year he pressed this measure, and in 1807 it was passed, during the administration of Fox. His efforts finally resulted (1833) in a bill which abolished slavery in the British colonies. He was a man of remarkable versatility and personal attractiveness.

WILBUR, *Curtis Dwight* (1867-), an American lawyer and jurist. He was born in Iowa, and graduated from the Naval Academy at Annapolis in 1888. He resigned from the navy soon afterwards and began the practice of law in Los Angeles, where he served the city and county as attorney and county judge for many years. In 1918 he was elected to the Bench of the Supreme Court of California, in time becoming Chief Justice, a position which he relinquished early in 1924 to accept the post of Secretary of Navy, tendered him by President Coolidge.

WILCOX, *Ella Whipple* (1855-1919), an American poet and essayist. She was born in Wisconsin, was educated at the University of Wisconsin and was married in 1884 to Robert M. Wilcox. From her girlhood she contributed freely to newspapers and magazines, and some of her writings have acquired considerable popularity. Her volumes of verse include *Poems of Pleasure*, *Poems of Passion*, *Poems of Power and Mourning*.

WILD CAT, or **CAT'AMOUNT**, a wild animal belonging to the same family as the domestic cat, but of larger size than the latter.



WILD CAT

The European wild cat once common, but now seen only in the most isolated regions, has a very long body and legs and a short, thick tail. Its fur is yellowish-gray, with

a dark marking down the back and other dark stripes on the sides and rings on the tail. In the United States the name is often applied to the lynx (which see).

WILDOAT BANKS, unstable banking institutions under loose state control, whose reckless issue of notes, followed by inability to redeem the same, were responsible for a series of financial panics in the United States in the generation preceding the Civil War. The most disastrous of these panics was that of 1837. President Jackson having removed the government deposits from the United States Bank and placed them in state banks, wildcat banks sprang up like mushrooms. Alarmed by the subsequent wild speculation, the President sought to correct the evil by ordering, through his famous "Specie Circular," that only gold and silver be received in payment for public lands. This precipitated a crash, and large numbers of wildcat banks failed. See JACKSON, Andrew.

WILDE, Oscar FINGAL O'FLAHERTY WILLS (1854-1900), dramatist, essayist and novelist, was born at Dublin, Ireland, the son of a noted surgeon. After graduation from Oxford, where he won honors in literature, he went to live in London and became leader of a so-called aesthetic movement. His affection of long hair, velvet knee breeches and a languishing air furnished a theme for much witty satire. He was lampooned by Du Maurier in *Punch* and by Gilbert in his opera *Patience*.

In 1881 Wilde published a volume of poems, and in 1888 a collection of fairy stories called *The Happy Prince and Other Tales*. These won high praise. Then appeared *The Picture of Dorian Gray*, a novel; *Intentions*, a volume of essays, and the plays *Lady Windermere's Fan*, *A Woman of No Importance*, *The Ideal Husband* and *The Importance of Being Earnest*. His drama *Salomé* has been set to music by Richard Strauss. In 1895 Wilde was convicted of a serious offense against morality, and was condemned to two years' penal servitude. In prison he wrote *A Ballad of Reading Gaol*, a poem of much force, and *De Profundis*. His last years were spent in seclusion on the Continent.

WILDERNESS, Battle of, one of the first important battles of Grant's famous Virginia campaign in 1864, between a force of 120,000 men under General Meade, supported by Warren, Sedgwick and Hancock, and with

General Grant in supreme command, and the Army of Northern Virginia, under Lee, comprising about 62,000 men under Ewell, Hill and Longstreet. The Federals were encamped on the northern bank of the Rapidan River, near Culpepper Court House, while the Confederates were south of the river, on the edge of the Wilderness. Grant had completely baffled Hooker's army after the Battle of Chancellorsville, where Lee had completely beaten him on May 3, without a contest, Lee being confident that he could defeat the Federals when they had once become entangled in the Wilderness. In the morning of May 5, General Warren, who was in the van of the Federal force, was met by General Ewell, and an all-day battle resulted, with little advantage to either contestants. Grant at first believed that he was confronting only a part of Lee's army, but soon ordered Hancock to come up, and another, more severe battle ensued, which paused at nightfall, only to recommence at dawn. It ended in a drawn battle, Grant had failed to make progress toward Richmond, Lee had failed to crush the opposing army. The losses of the Union forces were about 12,000, of the Confederates, from 10,000 to 12,000. See CIVIL WAR IN AMERICA.

WILHELMINA, *wil he m'nah*, (1880-), queen of the Netherlands, born at The Hague. In 1890, on the death of her father, William III, she succeeded to the throne, her mother, who was the daughter of Prince George, Viscount of Waldeck, serving as regent until 1898. Wilhelmina was married in 1901 to Henry Frederick, Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin. Her daughter, Juliana, heirress to the throne, was born in 1909.

QUEEN
WILHELMINA

The general unrest in Europe which followed the World War threatened the stability of her throne for a time in 1919, but she had always held for a time in 1919, the subjects and was able to overcome the socialist tendency of the minority.



WILKES, Sir Charles (1792-1877). An English naturalist and explorer, born at New York City. He was educated in the navy and entered the United States Navy in 1814, reaching lieutenant in 1826 and 1833 in charge of an expedition authorized by Congress to explore the Southern Ocean. He visited many important places in the Southern Hemisphere, including the Philippians, the Hawaiian Islands, New Zealand, the Southern and Fiji groups and many parts of South America. The mass of valuable scientific information collected on his voyages was published in several volumes. Wilkes became a commander in 1843 and captain in 1857. Upon the outbreak of the Civil War he was given command of the frigate *San Jacinto*. On November 1-2, 1861, he overtook the English mail steamer *Trent* and arrested Mason and Slidell, the Confederate commissioners (see *Treasury Affairs*). He was retired in 1861, and became rear admiral in 1866.

WILKES-BARRE, mill-culture, PA., the east end of Luzerne County, 115 miles northeast of Philadelphia, on the north branch of the Susquehanna River, and on the Lehigh, the Lehigh Valley, the Central of New Jersey, and the Delaware & Hudson railroads. There is an airport. The city is unique in that it is surrounded by thirty-three townships.

The city is in the heart of the anthracite region of the Wyoming Valley, the coal output of Luzerne County being greater in annual value than the entire coal production of the United States, exclusive of Alaska. Mining is the principal industry, but the abundance of fuel has made the city an important manufacturing center. The silk and lace mill are the oldest and among the largest in the United States, and there are also extensive factories of metal products, wire and spruce, rope, packing machines, cutlery, glass and clothing.

The educational institutions include the Henryville Academy for boys, the Wilkes-Barre Institute for girls and several public schools. The Orpheum Free Library contains more than 10,000 volume, and the Luzerne Historical and Geological Society is a repository library and a notable collection of historic documents and geological specimens. There is room for children's play areas and general well-being throughout.

The city was first settled in 1769 by families from Connecticut. It was named in honor of John Wilkes and Isaac Barré, members of the British Parliament who advocated the cause of the colonists before and during the Revolution. In 1784, during the controversy between Pennsylvania and Connecticut over the sovereignty of the Wyoming Valley, the settlement was burned. The Wyoming Monument marks the site of the conflict of the Americans with the loyalists, and Indians, July 3, 1778. Wilkes-Barre was made the county seat in 1786 and was incorporated as a borough in 1806. After the Civil War it grew rapidly and was chartered as a city in 1871. Population, 1930, 86,626.

WILKIE, David, Sir (1785-1841), a celebrated Scottish painter. He received his early art training at the Trustee's Academy, Edinburgh, and entered the schools of the Royal Academy, London, in 1803. His first works were scenes from every-day life, in which he showed the influence of the Dutch masters. In his later work, after his visits to Italy and Spain, he showed the influence of Titian and Velasquez and changed his theme to historical and portrait subjects. In 1811 he was made a member of the Royal Academy. Among his pictures are the *Bum-Fiddler*, *Rent Day*, *The Village Festival*, *Penny Wedding*, *Cotter's Saturday Night*, *Duncan Gray, Blind Man's Buff*, *John Knox preaching before the Lords of the Congregation* and *Wellington Writing a Dispatch*.

WILKINS, Sir George Murray (1888-), an English aeronaut, explorer, and scientist, born in South Australia and a member of the Australian Flying Corps in the World War. Before the war (1913), he was photographer for the Stefansson Arctic expedition, and became interested in the cold regions of the world. In 1919 he was navigator on an airplane flight from England to Australia; in 1921 he joined the Shackleton Arctic expedition; in 1928 he flew from Alaska to Spitzbergen, and in the next year headed an expedition into Antarctica, where he explored hitherto unknown lands. Wilkins attempted a hazardous submarine trip under Arctic seas in 1931, but it failed when he was 400 miles from the North Pole, because of mishap to the unseaworthy vessel. It was his most dangerous exploit. In 1928 he was knighted by King George V.

WILKINS, Mary Estrella. See *PRINCESS, MARY E. WILKINS*.

WILL, that mental activity which gives a human being power of choice and action. Desire or feeling has at the foundation of will, and the two are so interwoven that they cannot be separated.

J. B. Watson, the founder of behaviorism, once ventured the claim, "Give me a baby for three years and I will make any kind of a man of him you say." But so few babies receive perfect treatment that the psychologist finds many problems to solve. His professional counsel is often asked in guiding the growth of a young child's emotions and will, or in helping a painfully shy youth, or a law breaker, or a man who suffers a nervous breakdown, or a worker who cannot find the right job or perform his work safely, or a man and woman who will not live together happily as husband and wife. The wide field of service has attracted the psychologist, not because he is a peak of all trade but because most of the heartaches and failures in the world are due to the same cause—wrong mental and emotional adjustment—leading to a lack of will or to a will to do the wrong things.

This adjustment should properly take place in the first few years of life. Once this formative period has been past, it is hard to change a person's reactions to the world he lives in. It is, therefore, most important to know what the normal development of a baby is. During the first few years of life, the rate of growth of the brain and the amount of learning is much greater than it will ever be again. Even before birth, the nervous system controls the whole organism. A baby makes enormous advances both in controlling and in guiding his movements and in seeing the relationships in things and people around him. Recall that a new born baby has three immature emotions, love, fear, and anger, and that there are but a few certain causes which will produce any one of these emotions. A loud noise will make a baby shrink in fear. If every time he hears a loud noise, a rabbit is brought close to him, he will soon shrink from the rabbit even when there is no loud noise. His fear of rabbits was not born, as is his fear of noise. It has been acquired by association, or by what is called conditioning. This simple demonstration shows the way in which numerous fears, outbreaks of temper and violent preferences that we find in older children and adults are built

up. It shows also that many of the actions of a person are not deliberately willed, but are reactions to circumstances.

The baby begins early to respond to the behavior of those around him. If the people who care for him are kind and intelligent in their care, he in his turn will smile and love. If they are cross and awkward, he soon learns to cry and kick and to be wilful.

Graded scales of tests have been standardized so that the behavior and abilities of a child can be compared with those of other children of the same age. For instance, a four month baby will push his hand against a block and perhaps be able to pick it up, but a typical twelve months old child will easily grasp the block between his thumb and first finger. Since each individual develops at his own rate, a slight difference from the typical performance means little. A child should not be forced ahead faster than his natural rate. But when a child is found to be backward, far behind other children of his age, he should receive special help. This training is important not only so that he can take care of himself in the future, but also to protect him from unfortunate situations in which he is made to feel inferior, or perhaps is punished for being lazy. It should be carefully done, however, so that the child does not develop into a dependent person without a will of his own.

Soon, when the child can get about for himself in his small world, he findsnumerable fascinating objects to explore and to learn about. But with this wonderful new world before him, he also finds himself chained down by don'ts. At this point he must be taught to respect the property and rights of others. But if he is merely restricted, he will become rebellious and resentful. He may not always show this outwardly. In fact he sometimes becomes the most docile and obedient of children only later to fair out in ungovernable temper or really malicious revolt. On the other hand, he may begin to feel very inferior, and this is almost as bad. It is said that 75 per cent of lying is traceable to this feeling of inferiority. Irritability is frequent among adults who have been brought up in an atmosphere of repression and parental tyranny. The will of the child should be respected and developed—not thwarted.

At the other extreme is the child who is

always allowed to have his own way, never restrained, never punished. Although his parents may tolerate him, he soon finds that the outside world is a very different place where he cannot have his own way. The temper tantrums and crying which he found so convenient at home only react on himself. Some children brought up in such surroundings are never able to change, but grow up into men and women who are always getting into trouble. Such a person has never been taught that the wills of other people must be respected.

A child then should be brought up in surroundings as much as possible like those he will meet outside of his home. He should not be told arbitrarily not to do this or that, but be taught that other people have rights and that he cannot always do just as he pleases. When he comes to understand that his will is not supreme, he learns to fit very well into society.

When a child leaves home and starts to school he does not at once begin playing organized games. At about ten years he begins playing group games often competitive, and enters upon the "gang" age. He sometimes is the leader, sometimes follows. Although bad companions sometimes make this stage of development a dangerous one, the gang spirit when properly guided can be used to develop fair play and cooperation. This is really the best training ground for the will. The child meets his equals, and learns by trying to impose his will on others and by reacting against the imposition of their wills on him to develop a balanced character. In such situations the difficulties of superiority and inferiority are avoided. All these stages in a child's growth develop naturally at the proper time. They may be regarded as perfectly normal, not to be interfered with. Indeed, many times a child must be left alone—a lesson difficult for most parents and teachers.

If the child so far has been brought up sensibly and normally, he will find adolescence a happy and exciting experience.

Although the parent naturally wants his child to do as well as possible when he starts out to earn his own living, the parent should set tasks and goals which are within his capacity. In this way he becomes successful and happy, he gains confidence and poise, and retains the balance between dependence and independence which is typical of a

properly developed will. Some of the most authoritative psychologists today say a nervous breakdown or social maladjustment is just prolonged childhoodness, the result of thwarted and under-developed will power.

W V B

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WILL, in law, the legal declaration of a person's wishes as to the distribution of property after his death. It is an individually-made law, which, if its intent is clear beyond doubt and it does not conflict with public policy, no court can set aside. Technically, a will can dispose only of real property, the document relating to the disposal of personal property being called a *testament*.

In most states no will or testament is valid unless it is in writing and signed at the end by the maker, or testator, or by some person in his presence and by his direction. This signature must be made and the document acknowledged by the testator, in the presence of two or more witnesses, not beneficiaries by the will, present at the same time, and such witnesses must attest and sign the will in the presence of the testator. The will usually names one or more persons, known as executors, to direct the execution of its provisions. If none such is named, or if no will is made, the court appoints an administrator to the estate. In the latter case the property goes to lineal descendants. (For the rules for the disposal of the estate in the latter case, see *DECEASED*) Any alteration in the will must be duly signed by the testator and the witnesses. An addition to the will is known as a *codicil*. A will may be revoked by canceling, obliterating, tearing or burning, by a new will expressly revoking the former, or by one containing provisions inconsistent with it. The destruction of a later will revives a former will. At the death of the testator the will is recorded in the probate court, and that court directs settlements. See *PROBATE*.

WILLAMETTE, *wil'ah'met*, a river of Oregon, 260 miles in length, formed by the junction of the McKenzie and the Middle Fork. It rises in the Cascade Mountains, flows northward through a fertile valley and into the Columbia River. It is navigable to

Portland, fifteen miles from its mouth. A lock canal enables small craft to go around Willamette Falls and ascend 150 miles to Eugene.

WILLARD, EMMA HART (1787-1870), one of the pioneers in the cause of women's higher education in America, and founder of the Emma Willard School. She was born at Berlin, Conn. She taught a number of years, became principal of a girls' academy at Middlebury, Vt., and in 1809 married Dr. John Willard. In 1814 she wrote and submitted to New York state officials *A Plan for Improving Female Education*, with the result that she was able to establish at Waterford, N. Y., a girls' seminary partly supported by the state. This institution was removed to Troy and the name afterward changed to Emma Willard School. Under Mrs. Willard's management, it gained a wide reputation and is still one of the leading schools for the higher education of women. Mrs. Willard wrote a number of text-books, and was also the author of the famous poem *Rocked in the Cradle of the Deep*.

WILLARD, FRANCES ELIZABETH (1839-1898), an American educator and reformer, born at Churchville, N. Y., and educated at Northwestern Female College, Evanston, Ill. She taught school for several years, traveled in Europe and the East and on her return became professor of aesthetics in Northwestern University and later its dean of women. She resigned in 1874, became secretary of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union and later its president, holding the latter office until her death.

Miss Willard gave her entire time thereafter to the organization, traveling throughout the country from year to year, lecturing in prominent cities and writing extensively for the *Union Signal*, the organization's periodical, which she edited for six years. In 1888 she visited England and helped to form the World's Christian Temperance Union. Her former home, "Rest Cottage," in Evanston, is yet the headquarters of the national organization. In addition to articles in papers and periodicals, she was the author of *Nineteen Beautiful Years*, *Women and Tem-*

perance, *Glimpses of Fifty Years* and other books. See WOMAN'S CHRISTIAN TEMPERANCE UNION.

WILLIAM I, surnamed THE CONQUEROR (1027-1087), the first Norman king of England. He was the natural son of Robert II, Duke of Normandy, and as his father died without a legitimate heir, William became ruler and governed Normandy with vigor and ability.

On the death of Edward the Confessor he claimed the crown of England as the nearest in line of succession. In 1066 he invaded England, overthrew Harold, the rival claimant, and then set about to subdue the people. The resistance of two powerful English nobles, Edwin and Morcar, who had formed an alliance with the kings of Scotland and Denmark and with the prince of North Wales, soon after drew William to the north, where he obliged Malcolm, king of Scotland, to swear allegiance. In 1069 an insurrection broke out in the north, and at the same time the English resumed arms in the eastern and southern counties, only, however, to be put down mercilessly.

William then established the administration of law and justice on a firm basis throughout England, conferred numerous grants of land on his own followers and introduced the feudal system of Normandy, in regard to land tenure and services. Toward the end of his reign he instituted that general survey of the landed property of the kingdom, the record of which still exists, under the title *Domesday Book*. Although the English had been completely subdued, William had to suppress several formidable revolts of his own vassals, and these he put down with an iron hand. Some of his measures were extremely severe, but they were in keeping with an age of brutality.

As a man William was not without a certain sense of equity and fair dealing, but was willing to sacrifice everything to make his kingdom stable. Viewed in the perspective of history, he is seen as one of the makers of modern England. See Hastings, Battle of; Domesday Book.

WILLIAM II (about 1058-1100), called Rufus ("the Red"), son of William the Conqueror, was crowned king at his father's death. The Norman barons were discontented with this arrangement and sought to make his elder brother, Robert, who had received Normandy, king of England, but this



FRANCES E.
WILLARD

project was defeated by William, with the aid of the English nobles. Having repressed the conspiracy, he forced the Norman barons to withdraw to Normandy and confiscated their English estates. On the death of Lanfranc, he also seized the estates connected with the vacant bishoprics and abbeys. In 1080 he sent an army into Normandy, to punish his brother Robert, while he himself crossed the Channel the following year. A reconciliation was effected between the two brothers, and in 1086 Robert mortgaged Normandy to his brother, for a sum sufficient to enable him to join a crusade to the Holy Land. William was shot while hunting in the New Forest, whether accidentally or otherwise is not known.

WILLIAM III (1650-1702), king of England, Scotland and Ireland. He was born at The Hague, the posthumous son of William II of Orange and Mary, daughter of Charles I of England. During his early life, all power in the Netherlands was in the hands of the grand pensionary DeWitt, but when France and England in 1672 declared war against the Netherlands, there was a popular revolt, in which DeWitt and his brother were murdered and William was declared captain-general, grand admiral and stadholder of the United Provinces. In 1678 William concluded with France an honorable treaty at Nimeguen.

Meanwhile, William had married Mary, the daughter of James II of England. As she was heir presumptive to the English throne he kept close watch upon the policy of James II, and in 1688 issued a declaration recapitulating the unconstitutional acts of the English king and promising to secure a free Parliament to the people. Being invited over to England by the leaders of the English parties, he arrived suddenly at Torbay in November, 1688, with an army. A great part of the nobility declared themselves in his favor. In December James fled with his family to France.

The throne was then declared vacant, the Declaration of Rights was passed, and early in 1689 William and Mary were crowned. Scotland soon afterwards accepted the new sovereigns, but in Ireland, whether Louis XIV sent James with an army, the majority of the Catholics maintained the cause of the deposed king, until they were defeated at the Boyne (1690). In the war with France William was less successful; but in spite of

several defeats, he finally compelled Louis to acknowledge him king of England. In 1701 James II died and Louis XIV acknowledged his son as king of England. England, Holland and the Empire had already combined against Louis, and the War of the Spanish Succession was just on the point of beginning, when William died from the effects of a fall from his horse.

WILLIAM IV (1765-1837), king of Great Britain and Ireland, the third son of George III. He was educated for the navy, and although he had no real ability, he was promoted through successive ranks, until he became lord high admiral. In 1830 he succeeded his brother George IV on the throne. The great events which render his reign memorable are the passage of the Reform Act, the abolition of slavery in the colonies and the reform of the poor laws. William himself was mentally most unfit for ruling, but his ministers had matters almost entirely in their own control. He was succeeded by his niece, Victoria, whose reign was destined to be the longest and one of the most notable in English history.

WILLIAM I (1797-1868), king of Prussia and first emperor of Germany, crowned as such at Versailles in 1871. He was the son of Frederick William III of Prussia and Queen Louise. From his earliest years he received military training, and as early as 1814-'15 fought in the campaigns against Napoleon. He provoked the enmity of his people by his opposition to constitutional reform, to the extent of having to flee from the country at the beginning of the revolution of 1848. In 1849 he was in command of the army which crushed the uprisings in the Palatinate and Baden.

He became king of Prussia in 1861, and with the aid of his powerful minister, Bismarck, grew steadily in power. War against Denmark in 1864 was followed by war against Austria in 1866 and against France in 1870. The outcome of these conquests, in which William himself led the Prussian armies, was the consolidation of the German states into the empire whose aggressions forty years later involved the whole world in war (see GERMANY; WORLD WAR). It is an interesting fact that in 1919 German representatives signed a drastic peace treaty within one hundred feet of the spot where William I was crowned emperor. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF.

WILLIAM II, in German, **WILHELM II** (1859-), the last king of Prussia and last German emperor, a monarch who rose to supreme heights of power and influence, but who became the most hated man in the world, suffering humiliation and dishonor after a reign in which Germany became one of the great world powers.

The career of this last William of the House of Hohenzollern is one of the most spectacular and one of the most tragic in history. He ascended the throne on June 15, 1888, at the age of twenty-six, the successor of his father, Frederick III, who had reigned only three months. His mother was Victoria, princess royal of Great Britain, the sister of King Edward VII. The young emperor began his reign with a definite conception of the dignity of his office. Like his grandfather, William I, whom he revered, he believed in the divine right of kings, and almost from the outset of his imperial career there was friction between himself and his strong-willed Chancellor, Prince Bismarck. The resignation of the latter, in March, 1890, was the first striking evidence of the determination of the new ruler to exert his authority as he chose.

Notwithstanding his autocratic habit of mind, William II did much for Germany. The empire became industrially the most highly-developed country on the continent, and its expansion as a commercial nation was no less striking. Through his efforts Germany secured important holdings in Africa, Asia and the Pacific islands, and became a great colonial power. At the same time it developed into the greatest militarist nation in the world, through a system of universal service, planned and carried out with precision and iron discipline. The kaiser, as he was commonly called, took the greatest pride and delight in his finely-trained army, and there is no doubt that he had visions of its going into action some day to give Germany its "place in the sun." The navy, too, was built up and made second in strength to that of Great Britain. The influence of the kaiser was so manifest in all



WILLIAM II

of the military and naval activity that he was called the "war lord of Europe." Apparently, however, he sought to cultivate only the friendship of the other nations.

The energetic German ruler was not without opposition in the empire, though he was very popular with the people as a whole. His obstinate hostility to electoral reform and his medieval conception of the kingship as a divine institution antagonized the Social Democrats, and between them and the emperor there developed a bitter feud. The emperor sought to quiet political discontent by securing good living conditions for the working people, and by such reforms as health insurance, old age pensions and the like. The Socialists refused to be diverted from their main issue, that of securing political equality for all, and to his discontent they greatly increased in numbers.

The outbreak of the great war in 1914 focused the attention of the world on Germany's emperor. The power to declare a defensive war was vested with him, and he insisted that it was in defense of the Fatherland that he signed the decree mobilizing the army. The course of events subsequent to the outbreak of the war tended to disprove this statement, and the consensus of opinion later was that he regarded the Austro-Serbian episode as an opportunity for Germany to expand territorially and commercially. A short victorious war restricted to Central Europe would put down the Pan-Slavic agitation, crush Serbia, check Russia and lay the foundation for German supremacy in the Balkan states and, eventually, in Asia. William II's ambition overreached itself. In striving to bring about German world dominion he accomplished Germany's humiliation—the loss of its colonies, its fleet, portions of its European territory and, most serious of all, the regard of the world. Justly or not, the brutalities practiced by the German forces on land and sea aroused tremendous feeling against the once-honored emperor, and he reaped a whirlwind of scorn and hatred.

When the German people found that defeat faced them, they revolted and demanded new leaders. On November 28, 1918, seventeen days after his armies had demanded an armistice to save them from annihilation, William II signed a formal document of abdication, having previously sought refuge in Holland. He was received at the castle

of Count Goddard Bentinck at Amerongen, where he remained in retirement for several months. In January, 1820, the allied powers demanded that the former emperor be delivered to them for trial for war offenses, Holland refused to surrender him. In April, 1821, the kaiser died and was buried in Germany. See **GERMANY**.

WILLIAM I, PRINCE OF ORANGE, COUNT OF NASSAU, called THE SILVER (1533-1584), founder of the Dutch Republic. He was brought up in the Catholic religion, although both his parents were Protestants. In 1544 he inherited from his cousin the principality of Orange and large estates in the Netherlands. Under Charles V he served as commander of the army of the Netherlands and governor of Holland, Zealand and Utrecht. Philip II employed him in various offices, without, however, really trusting him.

When the duke of Alva entered the Netherlands, William withdrew to Germany. His first open resistance to Spain was an invasion of Brabant in 1568. This was unsuccessful, and a second attempt in 1572 met with no better fate. William had been before this time chosen stadholder by Holland, Utrecht, Zealand, Gelderland and Overijssel, and in 1576 he succeeded in bringing about the "pacification of Ghent," whereby the southern provinces united with the northern, to expel the Spaniards and secure religious liberty. The southern provinces shortly broke away from their allegiance to William, but in 1579, by the Union of Utrecht, the seven northern provinces, Holland, Zealand, Gelderland, Friesland, Utrecht, Groningen and Overijssel, were formed into a league, which two years later formally deposed Philip and declared itself a republic with William as hereditary stadholder. A prize had been set by the king of Spain on William's head, and several unsuccessful attempts were made to assassinate him; a few years later he was shot at Delft.

WILLIAM AND MARY COLLEGE, an institution of higher learning at Williamsburg, Va., next to Harvard the oldest in the United States, having been founded in 1693. It was named in honor of the reigning king and queen of England, and, endowed by the government, soon attained prosperity. It suffered heavily during both the Revolution and the Civil War, and for a period between 1881 and 1888 it was so crippled financially that it had to close its doors. But in 1888 a

state appropriation enabled it to reopen, and an indemnity of \$64,000, granted it by Congress in 1893, for its losses in the Civil War, put it again on a firm foundation. The college offers two courses, a collegiate and a normal course. It has about 400 students and about fifty instructors. Women were admitted to all college courses for the first time in 1918.

WILLIAMS, JOHN SHARP, (1854-1932), an American statesman, born at Memphis, Tenn. He studied at the Kentucky Military Institute at Frankfort, the University of the South, the University of Virginia and the University of Heidelberg. He was admitted to the Tennessee bar in 1877, and in the following year removed to Yazoo City, Miss., where he practiced law and also became a planter. Taking an active part in Democratic politics, he was elected to Congress in 1893 and served continuously for sixteen years, becoming the leader of the Democratic party in the House. In 1911 he was elected Senator from Mississippi and was reelected in 1917.

WILLIAMS, Roger (1604-1683), a Puritan divine, founder of the colony of Rhode Island, born of Welsh or Cornish parents. He attended the Charter House School and the University of Cambridge. Because of his Puritan beliefs he emigrated in 1631 to New England. There he became pastor of a church at Salem, but his extreme views regarding the jurisdiction of the civil magistrate caused him to be banished from the colony of Massachusetts, and he went with a few companions to Rhode Island and founded a settlement, which he called Providence. Here he formed the first Baptist church in America. He was twice in England, in connection with a charter for the colony, and there he made the acquaintance of Milton and other prominent Puritans. He published *A Key unto the Language of the Indians of America*, *The Bloody Tenant of Persecution for the Cause of Conscience*, *The Bloody Tenant yet more Bloody* and *George Foxe Dugged out of His Burrows*.

WILLIAMSBURG, VA., the county seat of James City County, forty-eight miles southeast of Richmond, on a peninsula between the James and York rivers and on the Chesapeake and Ohio railroad. The town is one of the oldest in the United States. It was settled in 1632, became the capital of Virginia in 1698, and was the first city



IN HISTORIC WILLIAMSBURG

The College of William and Mary, built in 1693. The Powder Horn, erected in 1732 for the storage of powder and ammunition, built in 1693. The oldest Episcopal church in America in continuous use, it dates from 1710-1715, and is on the site of two former churches, erected in 1674 and 1683.



VISCOUNT WILLINGDON

Governor of Bombay, 1913-1919

Governor of Madras, 1919-1924

Governor-General of Canada, 1926-1931

Viceroy of India, 1931-1936

in the state to receive a charter (1722) Wilham and Mary College, the second oldest college in the United States, established here in 1693, is still the chief feature of the city. There are also the Eastern State Hospital for the insane, erected in 1769, and the Williamsburg Female Institute. The courthouse dates from 1769. In 1928 John D. Rockefeller Jr provided a fund of \$5,000,000 to be used in restoring this historic pre-Revolutionary town to the condition in which it existed in colonial days. This work was completed within a few years. Population, 1930, 3,778.

WILLIAMS COLLEGE, a nonsectarian school for men at Williamstown, Mass., which developed from a free school established by Colonel Ephraim Williams. The funds donated by the colonel, who was killed in 1755, were invested and not used until 1793, when the school was chartered. The college has a faculty of over sixty members, an average attendance of about 700 and a valuable library containing about 105,000 bound volumes and 17,000 pamphlets. The prosperity and high rank of the institution are largely due to the work and influence of Mark Hopkins, who was its president from 1836 to 1872. Among the well-known men who attended Williams are William Cullen Bryant, President Garfield and his son Harry A. Garfield. The latter was president of the college from 1905 until 1934, except for the period of the World War, when he served as fuel administrator.

Williamstown is in Berkshire County, five miles west of North Adams. In 1930 it had a population of 3,900.

WILLIAMSPORT, PA., the county seat of Lycoming County, ninety-five miles northwest of Harrisburg, on the West Branch of the Susquehanna River and on the Pennsylvania, the Philadelphia & Reading and the New York Central railroads. There is an airport. The city is in an agricultural, mining and lumbering section. Its industries include numerous lumber mills, clothing factories, steel works, furniture factories and manufacturers of rubber goods, motors, gasoline engines, valves, pumps, dyes, wire rope, shoes, silks and sewing machines. Among the prominent buildings are a city hall, a Federal building, the James V Brown Library, a state armory, two hospitals, a home for the friendless and a Masonic Temple. The Dickinson Seminary is located here.

The place was settled in 1770, and chartered as a city in 1866. It is governed by a council and mayor. Population, 1920, 36,196; in 1930, 45,729.

WILLIMANTIC, Conn., one of the county seats of Windham County, sixteen miles northwest of Norwich, at the confluence of the Willimantic and the Natchaug rivers. Willimantic is popularly known as the "Thread City," the manufacture of thread being its principal industry. Other manufactures are silk goods, cotton prints and twills, plumbers' supplies, boxes and fine machinery. Many factories are run by water power. A state normal school is located here, also a state armory. The city has a Federal building and two libraries. It was settled about 1822, was incorporated as a borough in 1833, and was chartered as a city in 1898. Population, 1920, 12,330; in 1930, 12,102.

WILLINGDON, Viscount (1866-), Governor-General of Canada, appointed in 1936 to succeed Lord Byng. Educated at Eton and Cambridge, he began his official life in Australia, and from 1905 to 1912 he was junior lord of the British Treasury. After 10 years in the House of Commons, in 1910 he was created First Baron of Raton, in 1924 Viscount Willingdon, and in 1935 a marquess. From 1931 to 1936 he held the post of Viceroy of India.

WILLIS, NATHANIEL PARKER (1806-1867), an American author, born at Portland, Maine, educated at Andover and at Yale. During his college days he attracted some attention with his verse, and after graduation was employed by S. G. Goodrich to edit *The Legendary and The Token: The American Monthly Magazine*, from its establishment to its consolidation with the *New York Mirror*, was under his control. Willis traveled for some years as correspondent of the *Mirror* in France, Italy, Greece, Turkey, Asia Minor and England. After his return to America, he conducted several journals, most of which were short-lived. His works include poetry, travel and society sketches, in all of which he displays a facile style.

WILL-O'-THE-WISP. See *Lemnus*.

WILLOW, wife, a group of trees and shrubs common in the cold and temperate regions of the northern hemisphere, with a few representatives in Australia and some of the islands of the Southern Pacific. All thrive in moist ground, and are most common

on the banks of streams and ponds and in marshes. The alternate leaves are long, slender and pinnate, these are preceded by flowers in the form of catkins. The catkins, which are clothed with long, glossy hairs, are popularly known as *goose-willows*. On account of the flexible nature of the shoots of many species and the toughness of their wood and fibers, they have always been used as materials for weaving baskets, hoops and crates. Baseball bats, hoe handles and many similar articles are made from the wood of the white willow, and wooden shoes, pegs and other small objects are constructed from other species. The *weeping willow*, which is a native of China, is a fine ornamental tree that is often planted in parks.

WILMINGTON, Del., the largest city in the state and the county seat of New Castle County, is 27 miles southwest of Philadelphia, on the Delaware River, at the junction of the Christiansa and the Brandywine rivers, and on the Baltimore & Ohio, the Reading and the Pennsylvania railways. Three principal bus lines and many smaller ones serve the city. The municipal airport, Balance Field, is six miles distant, Buck Airport and two landing fields are nearby. There are in operation about 190 industries; the leading activities are the production of braded rubber, cotton dyeing and finishing and particularly vulcanizing fiber. The city is the headquarters of immense leather, powder and paper factories. A magnificent marine terminal accommodates coastwise and oceanic trade.

Iréné Eleuthère du Pont de Nemours in 1802 began the manufacture of powder on the Brandywine near Wilmington. His factory became and has remained the largest powder factory in the country.

Among educational institutions are the Friends' School, Beacon College, Goldey College, the Ursuline Academy and two business colleges. The state university is 14 miles away. The public library has nearly 200,000 volumes. Holy Trinity Church, built by the Swedes in 1698, is said to be the oldest church in continuous occupation in the nation. Some of the charitable institutions are the industrial school for girls and a similar school for boys, the four hospitals, a home for friendless children, Saint Peter's Orphanage, Saint Joseph's Home; two homes for the aged and the state hospital for the insane. Prominent buildings include the

courthouse, the custom house, the state armory, and the Federal building.

Wilmington was first settled by the Swedes under Peter Minut in 1638. It was taken by the Dutch in 1655, and they in turn were succeeded by the English in 1664. It fell into decline until Thomas Willing laid out the streets in 1731. William Penn landed at a nearby point in 1682. The original First Presbyterian church was erected in 1741. General George Washington occupied headquarters in the city during the battle of the Brandywine. The charter for the borough was issued by William Penn in 1739. The city charter dates from 1832. The first iron steamship constructed in the United States was built here in 1836. The founder of the du Pont de Nemours family, manufacturer of powder, died near Wilmington in 1817. Population, 1930, 106,597.

WILMINGTON, N. C., the county seat of New Hanover County, 148 miles southeast of Raleigh, on the Cape Fear River and on the Seaboard Air Line and the Atlantic Coast Line railroads. The city maintains one airport. This is the state's only developed deep water port and it has splendid facilities for commodity distribution both by rail and water. Wilmington is the center of a productive agricultural and trading area, with a growing season of 255 days between frosts, so that four crops annually can be raised. The temperature averages 56° in winter and 78° in summer.

Buildings and institutions of importance are the public library, the county museum, customs house, three hospitals, the Wilmington Law School, the Federal building, a house of correction and a home for aged women. There are seven parks and playgrounds, of these Greenwood Lake and Park are of rare beauty.

The city was founded in 1730 and was incorporated in 1866. The Stamp Act resistance in 1765 here antedated the Boston Tea Party by eight years. The city has adopted the commission form of government. Population, 1930, 32,270.

WILMOT PROVISO, *pro or so*, an amendment presented in Congress in 1846 to a bill providing for the purchase of territory from Mexico. It was offered by David Wilmot, a Democrat from Pennsylvania, and provided that "neither slavery nor involuntary servitude shall ever exist in any part of such territory, except for crime whereof the party

shall first be duly convicted." The amendment was adopted in the House, but did not come to a vote in the Senate, and in the next Congress the bill was finally passed without the amendment.

The debate in Congress over the question resulted in a breach between Northern and Southern Democrats, which led to the adoption by that party of the doctrine of popular sovereignty. This in turn resulted in the withdrawal of many Northerners, who joined the Free-Soil party and later became prominent in the Republican party.

David Wilson (1814-1883), an American politician and jurist, born at Bethany, Pa. He was admitted to the bar in 1834 and began his practice at Edwards. He became a prominent Democrat and served in the House of Representatives from 1845 to 1851. There he opposed the extension of slavery into the territory acquired from Mexico and was the sponsor for the famous Wilmot Proviso. He later joined the Republican party, was an unsuccessful candidate for governor of Pennsylvania in 1857, served in the Senate for two years (1861-1863), and thereafter was judge of the United States court of claims.

Wilson, Augusta Evans (1835-1909), an American novelist, born at Columbia, Ga. In 1858 she married a Mr. Wilson and afterwards lived at Mobile, Ala. Her books are sentimental, but harmless, and make a wide appeal. They have retained a greater popularity over a longer period than the collected works of any other American novelist. The titles are *Ivanhoe*, *A Tale of the Alamo*, *Brentar*, *Masquerade*, *Saint Elmo*, *Vivian*, *Inisherin* and *The Merry of Tiberius*.

Wilson, Henry (1812-1875), an American statesman, born in Farmington, N. H. His original name was Jeremiah Jones Colbrath, but he abandoned the name upon reaching manhood. He was first employed on a farm, later he learned the shoemaking trade, earned money to pay for an academic education and finally engaged in the manufacture of shoes at Nashua, Mass. In 1840, as the "Nashua cobbler," he addressed political meetings, winning wide fame, and in that year he was elected to the Massachusetts legislature. In 1845 he began to edit the *Boston Recorder*, as a Free-Soil organ. In 1855 he was chosen United States Senator, as a Free-Soiler or Know-Nothing, to succeed Edward Everett. His speeches against slavery are among the most important of the period. He served for

a short time on the staff of General McClellan in the Civil War. In 1872 he was elected Vice-President, on the ticket with President Grant, but died before completing his term.

Wilson, James (1742-1788), a native of Scotland, an emigrant to the American colonies in 1766, an eminent patriot and a signer of the Declaration of Independence. He became a member of the Colonial and Continental congresses, and also of the Constitutional Convention of 1787. His speech in the Pennsylvania convention later secured the ratification of the Constitution by that state.

Wilson, James (1835-1920), an American statesman and administrator. He was born at Ayrshire, Scotland, and emigrated to America at the age of seventeen. He attended Iowa College, engaged in farming and later entered the state legislature, of which he became speaker. From 1873 to 1877, and from 1883 to 1886, he was a member of Congress. At different times he was regent of the University of Iowa, director of the Agricultural Experiment Station and Professor of Agriculture at the Iowa Agricultural College. In 1897 he became Secretary of Agriculture, remaining in that post sixteen years, a longer term than any other cabinet member has ever served.

Wilson, John (1785-1854), a Scotch poet and essayist, better known as "Christopher North." He was born at Paisley, Scotland, educated at Glasgow University and at Oxford and on leaving college settled on an estate on Lake Windermere, where he gave himself up to literary work. Wordsworth, Southey and Coleridge were among his acquaintances. His first independent publication was a poem called *The Isle of Palms*, and this was followed by *The City of the Plague*, a second book of poems. When Blackwood's Magazine was established, in 1817, Wilson became one of its contributors, and for many years he wrote some of the most notable articles in that periodical. In 1820 he was appointed to the chair of moral philosophy in Edinburgh University, a position which he held for thirty-one years.

Most famous, perhaps, of the writings of Wilson are the *Hectorandromache*, which abound in graceful humor and sentiment. Among his other works are three novels, *The Lights and Shadows of Scotch Life*, *The Trials of Margaret Lyndsay* and *The Forest*.



WILSON, [THOMAS] Woodrow (1856-1924), an American educator, writer and statesman, the twenty-eighth President of the United States, and the only Democrat to serve two consecutive terms since Andrew Jackson. His administrations are linked with such stupendous changes in domestic and international history, and events and problems of such vast import confronted him almost from his first inauguration, that it is difficult to arrive at a just estimate of his place in history. No man of outstanding importance can be properly judged by his own generation, but, even though there is lacking the necessary perspective of time, it is clear that he ranks with the greatest of American Presidents. A man of deep sympathy for the workers of all nations, he stirred the masses by his remarkable state papers as no other statesman has moved them, and it is not an exaggeration to say that his writings have been read and quoted more widely than those of any other public leader of his time.

It happened that the greater part of his administration ran parallel with a terrible world struggle in which traditions, laws and organizations centuries old were swept away. Into the hide of war America was drawn, under the leadership of Woodrow Wilson, who had been called pacifist and impractical idealist by those out of sympathy with his methods and policies. Yet it was this peace-loving President who held the nation almost a unit through the anxious days of the war, who brought new inspiration to the war-weary masses in the allied countries, and who broke down the iron discipline of the subjects of the German emperor by his insistence on America's just aims in fighting.

President Wilson's fame as the spokesman of the allies and interpreter of American ideals is unquestioned. Whether the world was ready for the acceptance of his principles and whether the foundations of a lasting peace were laid in the treaty he helped to frame, time alone can tell, but it is certain that he had a decisive part in bringing the war to a close. For this achievement he must remain a great world figure.

Early Life. Both of the grandfathers of Woodrow Wilson were born in the British Isles. His mother's father, Thomas Woodrow, was a Scotch Presbyterian clergyman who at one time preached in a small church in Carlisle, England. Subsequently he went as a missionary to Canada, and eventually held a pastorate in Chillicothe, Ohio. The paternal grandfather, James Wilson, was an Ulsterman of County Down. He emigrated to America in 1807, and became a successful printer and newspaper owner in Pennsylvania. Joseph Ruggles Wilson, the youngest son of James Wilson and the father of the future President, was a well-known educator and a distinguished clergyman of the Presbyterian Church, South. He held several professorships in Southern colleges, and was pastor at various times in three different states. While Dr. Wilson was preaching in Staunton, Va., his third child and first son, Thomas Woodrow, was born, on December 28, 1856. The boy was taught at home until his ninth year, and in 1873, when a lad of seventeen, he entered Davidson College, N.C. Before the end of the first year he left school because of ill health, and when he reentered college, in 1875, he registered at Princeton.

Woodrow Wilson (the name Thomas he never used) was active in the university debating and literary circles, was managing editor of *The Princetonian* in his senior year, and won other honors as an undergraduate. He was graduated with the class of 1879, entered the law school of the University of Virginia, where he remained a year, and in 1882 began the practice of law in Atlanta, Ga. At college he had been keenly interested in the study of political science, and had read voluminously on the subject. As a young lawyer he found that study was more absorbing than the trying of cases, and in the course of a year he abandoned his practice to become a postgraduate student at Johns Hopkins University. Here he specialized in government and jurisprudence.

Career as Educator. In 1885 Wilson received his doctor's degree, having submitted as his thesis a book that is now a standard classic in its field—*Congressional Government. A Study in American Politics*. It is an interesting fact that the theories which the young man worked out in this small volume were consistently applied by him years later as Governor of New Jersey and as President of the United States. In his thesis he de-

cized that the method of preserving balance in governmental functions by having the legislative and executive administrations act as a check upon each other was weak in that it did not provide for effective leadership. His idea was that the executive should assume the official leadership and since government by political parties had become a fact, that the President should be not only the leader of the people as a whole, but the head of his own party.

It was many years before Wilson had the opportunity to put these theories to a test. For a quarter of a century after leaving Johns Hopkins he rose steadily to distinction as an educator. From 1885 to 1888 he was associate professor of history and political economy at Bryn Mawr College, and from 1888 to 1890 held a similar position at Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn. While at Wesleyan he published *The State*, another classic on political science, an analysis of the governments of various nations. This book has been widely used as a text in colleges and universities.

Wilson was offered the professorship of jurisprudence and political economy at Princeton in 1890, and in that year began an association with his alma mater that was to last twenty years. In 1902 he succeeded Dr. Francis L. Patton as president of the university. He had been remarkably successful as a teacher, partly because of his scholarship and grasp of his subject, and partly because of his attractive method of presenting it. His career as head of the institution was no less successful.

Among the several reforms inaugurated by Wilson as head of the university, the most radical was the introduction of the preceptorial system. About fifty preceptors were added to the faculty for the purpose of bringing about a closer relationship between the students and the teaching force. New professors distinguished in special fields were also brought to the institution, the equipment was enlarged and improved, and large endowments for the graduate school were secured. One attempted reform of the president met with opposition that defeated it—the plan of doing away with the exclusive senior-junior clubs in the interest of greater democracy in university life. On the whole, however, Wilson's record was sufficiently brilliant to make him a prospective nominee for governor in 1910.

In Politics. New Jersey was a Republican state, and the president of Princeton was a Democrat, but a long period of "boss" government had created a popular demand for a higher type of official, and when the Democratic convention nominated Wilson the liberal elements of all parties could approve the choice. The Democratic candidate set a new standard of campaigning, for he presented a progressive, straightforward platform and refrained from abusive personalities. Elected by a plurality of 49,056, in a state that had been Republican for sixteen preceding years, he carried out his program as he had outlined it.

As governor he showed exceptional qualities of leadership, guiding through the state legislature a number of measures designed to remedy various political and economic evils. When he met with "machine" opposition he did not hesitate to appeal to the people over the heads of the politicians, and in 1911, by a speaking tour through the state, he defeated the efforts of the machine to override the primary vote for James E. Martine, candidate for United States Senator. A record like this naturally made him a national figure in politics, and people began to study his career.

As the Presidential campaign of 1912 drew near the progressive governor of New Jersey was prominently mentioned as a candidate, and in the Democratic national convention which met at Baltimore, Md., he was nominated after a somewhat protracted contest. His chief opponent, Champ Clark of Missouri, had the backing of the conservative elements, but the fight for Wilson's nomination was led by William Jennings Bryan, still a powerful leader, though three times defeated for the Presidency. Public opinion veered strongly in favor of the New Jersey candidate in the closing hours of the convention, and his nomination was accepted with hearty approval by the rank and file of the party. The Republicans had split into two camps, which made the election of Wilson almost a foregone conclusion. His campaign, however, strengthened the favorable impression he had made, especially as he refused to be drawn into personal arguments. With Thomas R. Marshall of Indiana as his running mate, he carried forty states and received 435 electoral votes. The popular vote stood 6,386,214 for Wilson; 4,126,020 for Roosevelt; 3,388,922 for Taft.

As President. During the administration of President Taft, Wilson's immediate predecessor, popular feeling had run high against the Republicans because of their refusal to "raise the tariff downward." In the Congressional elections of 1910 the Democrats had gained control of the House, and through the Republican split of 1912 they secured a working majority in the Senate, besides increasing their strength in the lower body. The President therefore began his administration with a congress composed largely of his own political faith. His legislative program, among other things, called for a new tariff law, a revision of the banking laws and stricter regulation of private monopolies. The tariff was first disposed of.

Congress (the Sixty-third) was called in special session on April 7, 1913, primarily for the purpose of framing a new tariff law. President Wilson elicited much comment by appearing personally before the assembly and reading his message himself, a practice which had been abandoned after the administration of John Adams. Representative Underwood of Alabama and Senator Simmons of North Carolina had charge of the framing of the bill, which, after weeks of debate, was signed on October 3 by the President, who more than once was forced to exert pressure to push it through. The bill brought about a general reduction of duties on a long list of commodities.

Meanwhile, during the debate on the tariff, important preliminary work was being done on the revision of the banking laws, and when the tariff was out of the way Congress took up the debate of the Glass-Owen, or Federal Reserve Act. The foundation for this legislation had been laid by the Monetary Commission created in 1908. The act was passed in December by the regular session of Congress, and received the President's signature on December 23 (1913). It was in some respects one of the most important pieces of domestic legislation enacted since the Civil War, and its passage reflected favorably on the President's powers of leadership and his broad statesmanship.

After the midwinter recess Congress reassembled on January 20, 1914, and heard the President's message on anti-trust legislation. Two important laws followed—the Clayton Anti-Trust and the Trade Commission acts. By the former, interlocking directorates were made illegal, the latter

created a commission with powers over corporations similar to those exercised over the railroads by the Interstate Commerce Commission. Another important piece of legislation was the repeal of the act exempting American coastwise shipping from paying tolls at the Panama Canal. The President used his influence in favor of this repeal because he held that the act violated American treaty agreements with Great Britain. Meanwhile various international questions were beginning to confront him.

Trouble with Mexico. Shortly before President Taft went out of office, Madero, the deposed President of Mexico, was murdered, presumably by the orders of Huerta, who had led a revolution against him. Taft had refused to recognize the Huerta régime, and this policy was maintained by Wilson, who, in a special message to Congress in December, 1913, declared that stability in Mexico was dependent upon the downfall of Huerta. It was the general policy of the Wilson administration to discourage revolutions in the Latin-American republics by refusing recognition to usurpers. The Mexican problem, however, seemed to offer no solution. Some Americans favored active intervention to protect American lives and property in the troubled country, and these bitterly criticized the President for maintaining a policy of watchful waiting. Wilson, who fully realized the consequences of sending an army to "clean up" the country, and the adverse effect it would have on South American republics, too often suspicious of American motives, refused to do more than lift the embargo on the shipment of arms into Mexico, where a counter-revolution against Huerta was being carried on by Carranza and Villa. Circumstances, however, forced his hand.

In April, 1914, several American marines were arrested at Tampico by Mexican officers. Rear-Admiral Mayo, the American commander, demanded that the Americans be released and that Huerta formally apologize and order a salute to the American flag. Complications arose over Huerta's refusal to salute the flag, and the President on April 20 asked and received from Congress authority to use the naval and military forces of the United States to enforce the demand. Vera Cruz was occupied by American forces, but open hostilities were averted by an offer of mediation on the part of Argentina, Brazil and Chile (the "A B C" powers of South Amer-

(ca) While an arbitration commission was in session at Niagara Falls, the situation was cleared by the resignation of Huerta

After an interval Carranza succeeded in setting up a provisional government, which President Wilson formally recognized on October 19, 1915. Meanwhile, the World War in Europe had broken out (August, 1914), and Villa, who had quarreled with Carranza, was increasing the state of disorder by bandit raids against Mexicans and Americans alike. Matters came to a climax in March, 1916, when the town of Columbus, N. M., was raided at night by about 1,500 Villistas. Property was destroyed and several Americans were killed, the news of which made the people of the United States hot with indignation.

President Wilson called out the militia to guard the border, and an expedition under Pershing advanced into Mexico for the ostensible purpose of getting Villa, "dead or alive." Carranza maintained a hostile attitude toward the enterprise, and the utmost caution was preserved by the Americans to prevent a clash between the two governments. The public, many months later, learned that German intrigue was responsible for much of Villa's activity, and the wisdom of the administration's course was vindicated. In February, 1917, the expedition returned home, where a greater crisis was to be met.

America and the War in Europe. When the great war broke out in 1914 the majority of Americans breathed a sigh of relief that three thousand miles of water lay between them and the scene of struggle, and the President's proclamation of neutrality was generally accepted with approval. But neutrality was a most difficult thing to maintain. The great majority of American citizens of German blood found themselves openly sympathetic with Germany, and began to resent the shipment of supplies to the allied nations, because allied control of the seas made like shipments to Germany impossible.

On the other hand, large numbers of Americans who had no ties overseas began to feel stirrings against Germany. The invasion of Belgium was something that could not be talked away, and as the war progressed and appeals for help came from the areas devastated by German forces this hostile feeling deepened. When the liner *Lusitania* was sunk by a submarine, in May of 1915, and the

people read that over one hundred American lives were lost, there was open talk of joining the allies. The President, however, refused to be moved by the extremists on either side. Instead of suggesting war he bent his energies toward forcing Germany to keep its submarine warfare within the rules of international law and humanity, and he would not yield to the German and pacifist propaganda for an embargo on supplies to the allies, as he rightly held that such a course would be a violation of American neutrality.

The Campaign of 1916. In the summer of 1916 President Wilson and Vice-President Marshall were unanimously nominated to succeed themselves by the Democratic convention which met at Saint Louis. The Republicans nominated Charles Evans Hughes and Charles W. Fairbanks. The campaign lacked the dramatic elements of the fight of 1912. The Democrats asked for Wilson's reelection because of his record for constructive legislation, and his tactful handling of the international problems, which had "kept the country out of war." The Republicans vigorously attacked the domestic and foreign policies of the administration, but they failed to convince the country that a Republican régime would do any better.

President Wilson's personality had made a tremendous impression. He was criticized by his enemies as being vacillating and inconsistent, but there was a widespread feeling among the people that the man who occupied the executive chair had always acted from high motives, had never permitted dictation to him, and could be trusted further in the affairs of the nation. The contest was close. Though Wilson increased his popular vote over that of 1912 by nearly 3,000,000, he won by an electoral vote of 277, only twenty-three more than Hughes received. The outcome was not definitely known for several days after the election. The Democrats made heavy inroads in normally Republican states, especially in the West.

The Nation at War. Toward the close of 1916 President Wilson published a note requesting that the warring countries of Europe state the precise objects for which they were fighting. To this suggestion both groups of belligerents responded, the allied reply being by far the more specific. With the allied and German replies as a basis, the President addressed the Senate on January 22, 1917. He told his auditors that the United States

would be forced to play a part in the establishment of a durable peace, and that such a peace would be based on "equality of right among great and small nations" and upon "the freedom of subject people." Many people thought that the President was paving the way for an offer to mediate between the two groups of belligerents, but all hopes for peace were abandoned when the German government announced, late in January, that unrestricted submarine warfare would be started on February 1.

This announcement meant that the President's efforts to keep peace by diplomacy had failed. Unhesitatingly he broke off relations with Germany, and on April 6, 1917, signed the Congressional resolution that made the United States an associate with the allies in the great World War. (Details on the events leading up to this resolution and an account of the part America played in the war, both at home and abroad, will be found under the headings UNITED STATES and WORLD WAR.)

The unanimity with which the American people rallied to the support of the administration in this crisis surprised the most optimistic. President Wilson's qualities of leadership never appeared to better advantage than during the nation's participation in the war. He had the confidence of the people as a whole, regardless of party, and his war utterances, magnificent in spirit and couched in inspiring language, stirred America to a high plane of patriotism and devotion. His message caught the ear of the masses in Europe, weary and heartened over the cruel prolongation of the war, and gave them new courage. Germany listened, too.

During the period of negotiations in the fall of 1918, when Austria and Germany were making proposals for peace, President Wilson was the spokesman for the allies, and at the time the armistice was signed, on November 11, he was probably the most talked-of statesman in the world. It is a remarkable fact, however, that a week before this supreme climax of the war, the American people had elected a new Congress in which the Democrats had been repudiated and Republicans were in the majority, and had voted thus in spite of a direct appeal from the President to send Democrats to Congress.

This appeal was widely misunderstood, and it had subjected Wilson to bitter attacks from his political opponents. It was wholly in keeping with his theory of the function of the

executive, which anyone may read in his thesis on *Congressional Government*. He conceives the executive as having a dual rôle—that of President of the United States and also head of the party he represents. Leadership should be exercised by the President, who must interpret the wishes of the people and be responsible to them. Efficiency is possible only when the President is backed by a congress in which his own party is dominant. Naturally, to the average voter the appeal was only an act of partisanship, and it cost the President something in prestige. The Congress which was to work with him for the rest of his term was Republican by a margin of two in the Senate and of forty-three in the House.

America and World Peace. With his usual disregard for precedent, the President announced that he would head the American delegation to the peace conference. In December he sailed for Europe, and so for the first time in American history a President visited a foreign nation during his term of office. Like many other acts, this one was greeted with storms of approval and of disapproval, but through it all the President went on his way, undisturbed by popular clamor. The other American delegates were Secretary of State Lansing, Henry White, diplomat, General Tasker H. Bliss, and Edward M. House, confidential adviser of the President.

With the exception of a brief interval late in February, when he returned home to sign bills passed by Congress, the President remained in Europe until the last of June. On his first trip he visited Italy and England, receiving there and in France extraordinary ovations from the people. He took a conspicuous part in the Paris discussions leading up to the treaty with Germany, signed the treaty on June 28 in the Hall of Mirrors, in the Palace of Versailles, and reached home early in July. The treaty was presented to the Senate on July 10, the President at that time addressing the Senators on the subject of the league of nations, which had been made an integral part of the treaty.

During the President's absence formidable opposition in the Senate had developed to the provisions of the league of nations as formulated in Paris. It was argued that the independence of the United States was jeopardized, that the right of Congress alone to declare war was impeded, that the United

States would be drawn into petty European quarrels, that the Monroe Doctrine was menaced, etc. A long and bitter debate ensued, both in the Senate and among the people, but in the end the Senate refused to ratify the treaty and the league covenant. Wilson's health gave way under the strain, and when he gave up office in 1921 he was a sick man. He continued to reside in Washington as a private citizen, and kept up his interest and exerted his influence constantly in the cause of international peace. But physical strength did not return, and he died in Washington on February 3, 1924, and was buried in the crypt of Bethlehem Chapel. It was said of him that "he elevated the war into a moral crusade for the deliverance of oppressed peoples and for the destruction of an outworn social order." His legacy to America was a stronger sentiment for international cooperation and good will.

Other Events. International affairs had so prominent a place in the Wilson administration that they obscured many events of domestic interest. Two amendments to the Constitution became effective, the XVIIth (1913), providing for the direct election of Senators, and the XVIIIth, making illegal the sale and manufacture of alcohol liquor. The XIXth amendment, enfranchising women, was adopted by Congress in 1910 and submitted to the state legislatures for ratification; by September, sixteen states had ratified it. On July 1, 1919, the United States became temporarily a "dry" nation, in accordance with the terms of a war measure designed to conserve foodstuffs. The prohibition era was scheduled to last until the army was declared demobilized, the prohibition amendment not becoming effective until January 18, 1920.

Several other experiments were tried by the nation in this remarkable period of change. The government took control of the railroads, the telephones and telegraph systems and the cables, and operated them for varying intervals. Because of unsettled conditions it was difficult to judge adequately of the advisability of permanent government ownership. Another innovation was the establishment of daylight saving by moving all the clocks forward one hour on the first Saturday in March and returning to standard time in October. The plan was adopted in March, 1918, it resulted in a great saving of fuel and was considered a

boon by city dwellers, who enjoyed thereby an extra hour of light at the close of day. Farmers opposed the system and an attempt was made to repeal the law during the special session of the Sixty-sixth congress. President Wilson vetoed the bill for the repeal; at that time there were not sufficient votes to override his veto, but repeal was accomplished in August.

Except for a few months after the outbreak of the World War, the United States enjoyed great prosperity during the Wilson administration. Business flourished, crops were large, and the Federal Reserve system kept financial conditions steady. To offset these favorable items were the high cost of living and unsettled labor conditions. Wages were high everywhere, but prices were correspondingly higher, and strikes for increases to meet advanced costs became alarmingly frequent during and after the war. The activity of radical elements who admired the Lenin regime in Russia also caused anxiety. Altogether, President Wilson was confronted by larger and more varied problems during his two terms than any other President since Lincoln. An event which caused general sorrow was the sudden death of Theodore Roosevelt, in January, 1919.

The White House Family. President Wilson was twice married. He and his first wife, Ellen Louisa Axson, of Savannah, Ga., were married in June, 1885, at the close of his student days at Johns Hopkins. She died on August 6, 1914, a few days after the World War began. The second Mrs. Wilson, who had been Mrs. Edith Bolling Galt, became mistress of the White House on December 18, 1915. Mrs. Wilson accompanied her distinguished husband to Europe in 1919. The three daughters of President Wilson created much quiet interest among Americans. The eldest, Miss Margaret, is a singer of note, and is active in social welfare work. During the war she sang for the soldiers in a number of communities in Europe. Jessie and Eleanor Wilson were both White House brides, the former marrying Francis B. Sayre, and the latter William G. McAdoo, former Secretary of the Treasury.

Woodrow Wilson, Author. For distinction of scholarship and charm of style Wilson's writings have a high place, though they do not show great variety as to subject matter. His *Congressional Government* and *The State* have already been mentioned. In 1893

Administration of Woodrow Wilson, 1913-1921

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| <p>I THE PRESIDENT</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Ancestry (2) Birth (3) Education (4) Career as educator (5) Governor and President (6) Character (7) Writings <p>II GOVERNMENT AFFAIRS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Domestic <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (a) Underwood Tariff Law <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Revised tariff downward (2) Income tax provisions (b) Federal Reserve Act <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Twelve Federal Reserve banks created (2) Stabilized financial conditions (c) Clayton Anti-Trust Act (d) Trade Commission Act (e) Repeal of Panama Tolls clause (f) Seventeenth Amendment <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Direct election of Senators (2) In force, 1913 (g) Eighteenth Amendment <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Prohibition of liquor manufacture and sale (2) Effective January 16, 1920 (h) Nineteenth Amendment <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Women enfranchised (2) Adopted by Congress in 1919 (i) Daylight saving adopted (2) Foreign <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (a) Mexico problem <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Refusal to recognize Huerta (2) Tampico episode <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (a) Occupation of Vera Cruz (b) "ABC" mediators (3) Villa raid on Columbus, N. M. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (a) Invasion by Pershing's troops | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (b) Withdrawal of troops (b) World War <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Neutrality maintained until 1917 (2) German aggressions against America (3) Diplomacy of President (4) Reflection of Wilson in 1916 (c) United States enters the war, April 6, 1917 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Conscription (2) Army in France (3) Liberty Loans successfully floated (4) Government operation of railroads (5) Armistice, November 11, 1918 (d) Paris Negotiations <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) President goes to Paris (2) Treaty presented to Senate (3) Controversy over league of nations <p>III MISCELLANEOUS EVENTS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Completion of Panama Canal (2) Panama-Pacific Exposition (3) "War-time" prohibition effective July 1, 1919 (4) Death of Theodore Roosevelt <p style="text-align: center;">Questions on Woodrow Wilson</p> <p>Who were Woodrow Wilson's grandfathers?</p> <p>Sketch his career as educator.</p> <p>Why did he not continue the practice of law?</p> <p>What was there unusual about his election as governor of New Jersey?</p> <p>What precedents did Wilson ignore while President?</p> <p>What amendments were proposed or became effective in his administration?</p> <p>In what ways was the Wilson era a period of change?</p> <p>How long did he remain in Europe?</p> |
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he published *Division and Reunion*, an account of American history from 1829 to 1889, the same year he brought out *An Old Master and Other Political Essays* and *Mere Literature and Other Essays*. His *History of the American People*, in five volumes, was published in 1902, and is one of the most readable narratives of its kind. Of more recent date are *The New Freedom*, *Guarantes of Peace and International Ideals*. The eloquent war messages of Woodrow Wilson are familiar to contemporary readers. Undoubtedly some of them will have a place in American literary annals with the utterances of Webster and Lincoln.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:
 Banks and Banking Prohibition
 Louisiana Purchase Tariff
 Mexico (History) Woman Suffrage
 Nations, League of World War

WILSON, WILLIAM
 Lynn (1843-1900), an American statesman and educator, born in Jefferson County, Va. He was graduated from Columbian College, Washington, D. C., studied at the University of Virginia and served in the Confederate army. Later he became professor of Latin at Columbian College and practiced law from 1871 to 1882, when he was chosen president of the University of West Virginia. In 1883 he entered Congress as a Democrat and served twelve years. As chairman of the Ways and Means Committee, he led the opposition to the Sherman silver purchase law and was the author of the famous Wilson Tariff Bill (see TARIFF). In 1895 he was made Postmaster-General by President Cleveland, and at the close of his term became president of Washington and Lee University.

WINCHELL, ALEXANDER (1824-1891), one of America's greatest geologists, who produced more than twenty volumes on geological topics and who taught for many years. He was born in Dutchess County, N. Y., and was graduated in Wesleyan University in 1847. Immediately he was appointed to the chair of physics and civil engineering at the University of Michigan, but was soon transferred to the geological department. He was a founder of the Geological Society



WILLIAM L.
WILSON



IND, movements of the atmosphere caused by unequal heating and the resultant inequality of pressure on different parts of earth's surface. The temperature is highest and the atmospheric pressure is lightest at the equator, while at the poles the temperature is lowest and the air most dense.

The heating of the air at the equator produces an upward current, which continues until the rising air reaches layers of atmosphere of the same density, when the vertical motion is changed to a horizontal one, and currents set in toward the poles. As the warm air over the equator rises, the cool air on either side moves in to take its place, so that there are in the equatorial regions two sets of currents, blowing towards the equator, and an upper current blowing towards the poles. When the upper current reaches the temperate latitudes it becomes of the same density as the air near the surface and descends, mingling with the surface currents. For this reason there may exist areas where for many consecutive days there is no wind.

Were it not for the rotation of the earth, these currents would blow directly north and south. As it is, each is deflected from its course. The wind blowing toward the equator enters regions having a greater velocity of rotation than those from which it came. It is unable at once to acquire this velocity and, as it were, logs behind, producing easterly winds.

Winds blowing toward the poles are constantly entering regions having a lower velocity of rotation, and their eastward motion is greater than that of the land; hence they become westerly winds. In the northern hemisphere they blow from the southwest, and in the southern hemisphere, from the northwest.

In and near the tropics, these currents are quite regular, but as they approach the temperate latitudes and become nearer equal in temperature and pressure, they are subject to many local influences and become very irregular; hence no theory of wind which accounts for the general circulation of the atmosphere is sufficient to explain the prevailing winds in many localities, and the ac-

WINDERMERE

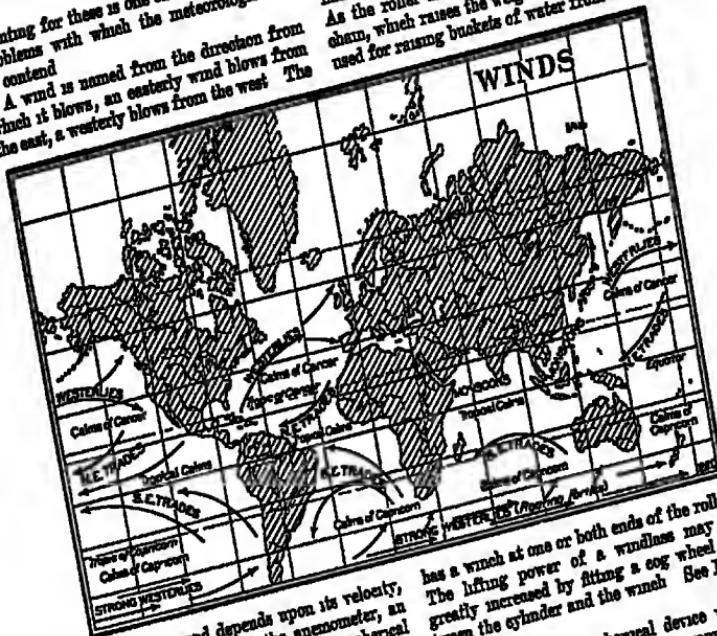
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WINDMILL

sounding for these is one of the most difficult problems with which the meteorologist has to contend.

A wind is named from the direction from which it blows, an easterly wind blows from the east, a westerly blows from the west. The

cylinder, several inches in diameter, with a square hole at each end, into which bars, called hamespikes, can be inserted for turning it. As the roller is turned, it winds a rope or chain, which raises the weight. The windlass used for raising buckets of water from a well



force of the wind depends upon its velocity, which is determined by the anemometer, an instrument constructed of four hemispherical caps at the ends of horizontal bars, mounted on a vertical axis and attached to a regular going system of clock work.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

- Baedeker's Wind Scale
- Calmes Regions of Simeon
- Cyclone Storm
- Chasma Tornado
- Land and Sea Breezes Typhoon
- Monsoon Trade Winds
- Norther Weather Bureau
- Prevailing Westerlies Whirlwind

WINDERMERE, *wind'er-mir'*, the largest lake of England, situated in Westmoreland and Lancashire counties, in the northwestern part of the country. It is ten and one-half miles long and about a mile wide. It contains seven islands, and has steep and rugged shores. The beauty of its scenery inspired Southey, Wordsworth and Coleridge.

WINDHOVER, *wind'huv ur'*. See *Kaz-*

WINDLASS, a mechanical device for raising weights with little power. The windlass is a modification of the wheel and axle, and in its simplest form it consists of a mounted

has a winch at one or both ends of the roller. The lifting power of a windlass may be greatly increased by fitting a cog wheel between the cylinder and the winch. See *Dra-*

WINDMILL, a mechanical device which utilizes the energy of the wind for pumping water from wells, for grinding grain, cutting fodder for stock, for running chimneys, and many other purposes where a small amount of power is needed. The mill in general use on American farms has a wind wheel with radiating wooden or metal slats, placed close together and inclined, though not overlapping. This wheel rotates on a horizontal bar having at its opposite end a rake which keeps the wheel constantly facing the wind. The wheel is mounted on a frame twenty-five or more feet in height, to expose it to the wind's action. The speed of the mill is regulated by a gearing. The amount of power varies with the machine. There are mills which, under favorable conditions, furnish as high as four or five horse power. This type of mill is a Dutch windmill, which has four radial arms covered with canvas. The latter is mounted

on a tower an wheels end is turned by hand when a change in direction of the wind makes it necessary to set the sails to the breeze

WINDPIPE See TRACHEA

WINDSOR, HOUSE AND FAMILY OF, the name of the British royal family since July, 1917. When Victoria was crowned as queen in 1837, she was of the House of Hanover, the German line which gave Great Britain the four Georges and William IV. It will be remembered that George I knew no English and was not in sympathy with English ideals and traditions; he was more proud of his German title of Elector of Hanover. Victoria married into the House of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha when she took the German Prince Albert as her husband. The family name of Albert was Wettin, it was an illustrious family, coming into prominence in the tenth century. In time by conquest and marriage it controlled several duchies, among them Saxe-Coburg and Gotha.

In 1917, in the midst of the World War, the royal house determined to rid itself of this link with German life, though no longer significant, yet a reminder of the then implacable enemy against which the English nation and its allies were contending. Therefore, by proclamation on July 17 of that year, the name of the royal family was changed from the House of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha to the House and Family of Windsor, much to the nation's satisfaction. The name of George V, until then George Frederick Ernest Albert Wettin, became George Frederick Ernest Albert Windsor, his son, the Prince of Wales (now Edward VIII), became popular "David Windsor."

WINDSOR, *wind'sor*, ONT., in Essex County, on the Detroit River, directly opposite Detroit, and on the Canadian Pacific, the Canadian National, the Michigan Central, the Wabash, and Pere Marquette railroads. It is connected with Detroit by ferry, by the new international bridge and by railway and vehicular tunnels under the Detroit River. It is one of the principal centers in Canada for the manufacture of automobiles and drugs, and also has large steel mills, machine shops, and a salt refinery that is one of the largest in the Dominion. Windsor was first settled in 1812. Population, 1921, 38,591; 1931, 63,108.

WINDSOR CASTLE, one of the most magnificent royal palaces in the world, situated at Windsor on the Thames, about

twenty miles from London. Windsor was the residence of the Saxon kings before the Conquest.

Wilhem the Conqueror first built a royal residence there, and succeeding rulers have added to, torn down and rebuilt it. The present structure was completed in the reign of George IV. The castle consists of buildings surrounding two great courts, between which is the round tower, or keep, the oldest part of the structure, built by Edward II. Saint George's chapel, an imposing part of the castle, is a fine example of Gothic flamboyant architecture. It has a vault, in which are buried many members of the royal family, among whom are Henry VI, Edward IV, Henry VIII, Jane Seymour, Charles I, George IV, and George V. Adjoining this is Albert Chapel, one of the most beautiful of memorial buildings, built by Henry VII as a mausoleum. Under James II it was used as a Roman Catholic chapel, and after this it was neglected until George III rebuilt it as a royal tomb.

It was Queen Victoria who finished it in the most sumptuous manner, as a memorial to her husband, Prince Albert. Besides the private rooms of the royal family, there are in the castle richly furnished state apartments. See illustration, in the article ENGLAND.

WINDWARD ISLANDS, a group of islands of the West Indies embracing Saint Lucia, Grenada, Saint Vincent and a chain of smaller islands, all under a British governor-in-chief. The islands are so called because of the fact that they are exposed on their eastern sides to the trade winds. See LEEWARD ISLANDS.

WINE, the fermented juice of fruits, particularly of grapes. The grape sugar contained in grape juice is readily changed through fermentation into alcohol. The process of manufacture is simple. To separate the juice the grapes are placed in a crushing machine having two corrugated cylinders which crush the grapes without crushing the seeds. The must, as the resulting mass of pulp is called, is then forced by pumps through hoses to large wooden vats or tanks, where the fermentation takes place, usually slowly.

The fermentation is watched with the greatest care, for upon it depends the quality of the wine. It is hastened by raising the temperature or by placing in the must a small

quantity of fermented pulp from another vat. When the fermentation is completed, the juice is strained from the pulp and placed in large reservoirs, called *tuns*, where it remains until the wine is ripe. It is then drawn into casks or bottles and is ready for market.

Wines are known as *dry* when complete fermentation takes place and all the sugar is converted into alcohol. When fermentation is arrested while there is yet some sugar, the result is a sweet or fruity wine. A sparkling wine is one which effervesces when the bottles are uncorked. Champagne is a good illustration. In such wines fermentation has been arrested before all the carbons have escaped. In color, wines are known as *red* or *white*. Red wines are produced by allowing the skins of the grapes to remain in the vat during fermentation. The amount of alcohol in wines varies from 15 to 25 parts in 100. In light wines it may be from 7 to 12 parts in 100.

Wines are manufactured in almost endless variety, and many of them are named from the locality in which they are made, such as Port, Burgundy, Bordelais and Rhine wine. The leading countries in the world in the manufacture of wine are France, Spain and Italy. In the United States wine has been extensively manufactured in California. Excellent wines are also produced in New York, Ohio, Virginia and other states.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:
Champagne Port Wine
Grape Sherry

WINGED BULL, a type figure of ancient Assyrian sculpture. It was customary to place winged bulls with human heads before the entrances of royal palaces, as it was believed they guarded the buildings from enemies. Some of the larger bulls were seventeen feet high. The wings of the creatures were carved on huge plinths that covered the wall, while the body projected from the wall, the head and breast being outside the arch of the entrance.

WINGED LION, a famous piece of bronze sculpture representing a lion with wings. It is the emblem of Saint Mark, and was cast in 1178 for the embellishment of one of the two large columns at the south end of the extension to Saint Mark's Square, Venice.

WINGED VICTORY, or NIKE OF SAMOTHRACE, a famous piece of antique sculpture, dug up in 1863 on the island of

Samothrace, in the Aegean Sea, and now in the Louvre, Paris. Nike, the Greek goddess of victory and winged messenger of Zeus and Athens, is here represented as standing on the prow of a ship, her transparent draperies whipped by the breeze. The statue, it is believed, was made to commemorate some military victory of the Greeks. It is badly mutilated, but what remains of it is treasured for its buoyant vitality, its sinuous grace and the noble dignity of its pose. See *Sculpture*.

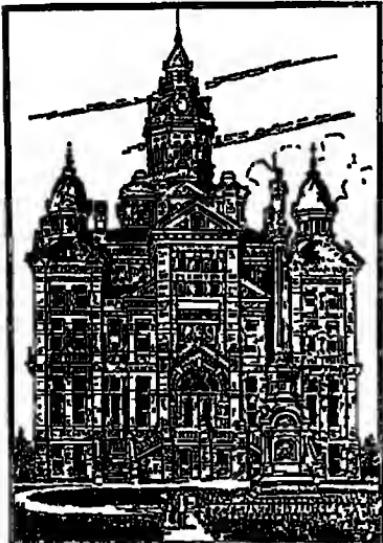
WINKELRIED, *von Levent*, ARNOLD, a Swiss patriot, who, if legend be true, brought about the independence of Switzerland. According to the popular story, at the Battle of Sempach, when the Swiss were fighting for liberty against their Austrian oppressors, Winkelried, who was only a poor peasant, conceived the idea of leading his countrymen in close triangular formation. By deliberately sacrificing their lives they drove a wedge into the enemy and thus made a breach which opened the way for a successful attack and victory.

WINNEBAGO, an important Sioux tribe, now numbering about 2,000, who live in Wisconsin and Northeastern Nebraska. When the Jesuits met the Winnebagos, they held a broad tract in Central Wisconsin, near Green Bay and Lake Winnebago. They were a tractable people, but many of them died from the ravages of smallpox, and their numbers greatly diminished.

WINNIPEG, LAKE, a lake situated in the south-central part of Manitoba. It has an area of 9,659 square miles, and is a little larger than the state of Vermont. The southern half is in the form of a narrow arm, which extends southward to within about thirty miles of the city of Winnipeg. Its entire length is 260 miles, its greatest width about forty miles and its greatest depth 100 feet. It receives the Winnipeg, the Red River of the North and the Assinabome on the south, and the Saskatchewan on the west. Its outlet is by the Nelson River, which, after flowing through several small lakes, reaches Hudson Bay. The fisheries are the most important in Manitoba, yielding \$400,000 annually.

WINNIPEG, MANITOBA, the capital of the province, the county town of Selkirk County and the third largest city of the dominion, is situated at the confluence of the Assinabome and Red Rivers. It is about 65 miles north

of the United States boundary and practically midway between Montreal and Vancouver. Its geographic position is unique, it lies in a great plain, midway between Lake Winnipeg and the international boundary, and is thus like a spur through which all the trade between eastern and western Canada must flow. It is entered by two great railway systems, the Canadian Pacific Railway, and the Canadian National Railway, and their repair shops are among the largest



WINNIPEG CITY HALL

industries of the city. The Great Northern and Northern Pacific lines give the city direct communication with Minneapolis and Saint Paul and other important commercial centers in the United States.

Winnipeg is a great wholesale center, and its manufactures are increasing in importance. It has over 400 factories, whose total annual output exceeds \$75,000,000. The wholesale trade in normal times averages \$250,000,000 a year. Over sixty buildings of the agricultural college were completed in 1920, there are a number of colleges including the University of Manitoba, Saint John's College, Wesley College, Manitoba College and Manitoba Medical College. The city is well built, with wide, regular streets and many beautiful buildings, among which

are the city hall, the postoffice, the parlour buildings, the courthouse, Carnegie Library, the new Fort Garry Hotel, Eaton's department store, two great railroad stations and the Hudson's Bay Company, McArthur, Sterling Bank and Ideal buildings.

The site of Winnipeg, in a rich river valley, early attracted settlers. The Hudson's Bay Company in 1812 erected Fort Douglas, which protected the colonists sent out by the Earl of Selkirk; these colonists were the first real settlers in Manitoba. Fort Garry, built in 1822 and rebuilt in 1835, was for years the seat of government in the Red River Valley. In 1873 the city of Winnipeg was incorporated. Its growth has been rapid, and it has enjoyed great prosperity.

In 1910 the most serious strike in its history occurred. Practically all of the union men stopped work, and for several weeks the situation was grave. The city government called for citizen volunteers to act as policemen, and they carried on public activities until the strike was broken. In 1870 the city had 215 inhabitants, by 1901 its population was 42,340, by 1931 it had increased five-fold, to 218,785.

WINNIPERGO'SIS, LAKE, a lake in the southwestern part of the Canadian province of Manitoba, lying west of Lake Winnipeg and northwest of Lake Manitoba. It has an area of 2,086 square miles, and is 122 miles long and twenty miles in width at the widest part. Small boats can safely ply the lake, but numerous shallow places prevent navigation of large vessels. Its waters are stocked with whitefish and pike, and it is much in favor with anglers. The lake discharges into Lake Manitoba through the Waterhen River.

WINONA, MINN., the county seat of Winona County, 103 miles southeast of Saint Paul, on the Mississippi River and on the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy, the Chicago & Northwestern, the Chicago Great Western, the Chicago, Milwaukee, Saint Paul & Pacific, and the Green Bay & Western. There is a combined government and private airport. It conducts a large trade in grain, lumber and live stock. Its industries include sawmills, railroad shops, flour mills, packing plants, and manufacturers of patent medicine, flax fiber, farm implements, shoes and candy.

A state normal school is located here, and the city has a seminary for young women, a business college and a public library. Prom-

ment structures include a Federal building, a courthouse, a city hospital, Watkins administration building and the Margaret Simpson Home. Winona is partially surrounded by bluffs of peculiar rock formation, Sugar Loaf and Trempealeau Mountains being especially picturesque. The place was settled in 1851, and the city was chartered in 1887. Population in 1920, 19,143; in 1930, 20,800, a gain of 9 per cent.

WINBLOW, JOHN ARONUS (1811-1873), an American naval officer, commander of the *Kearsarge* in the battle between that vessel and the Confederate cruiser, *Alabama*, in 1864. The *Alabama* was sunk, and Captain Winslow, who had already won distinction in battle, was promoted to the rank of commander. After the Civil War he commanded the Gulf squadron and later the Pacific squadron. He was made rear-admiral in 1870.

WINTON-SALEM, N. C. the county seat of Forsyth County, 110 miles west of Raleigh, on the Norfolk & Western, the Southern, and the Winston-Salem South-bound railroads. There is an airport Winston and Salem were consolidated to form the present city in 1813. Winston-Salem has the largest factory output of tobacco products of any city in America, amounting to 50,000,000 pounds per year and valued at \$45,000,000, or more than \$1,300 per capita for the entire population. Other industries include the manufacture of textiles, hosiery and underwear, furniture, and air conditioning machinery. Educational institutions include the Salem Female Academy and the Winston-Salem Teachers' College (colored).

A Federal building, a Carnegie Library and the Salem Museum are among the principal buildings. Salem was founded in 1766 by the Moravians, and was governed for a time as a Church community. Population, 1920, 48,306; in 1930, 75,274.

WINTER, the season of the year between autumn and spring, beginning with the winter solstice, about December 22, and ending with the vernal equinox, about March 21. In the United States, the months December, January and February are commonly regarded as the winter months, although winter does not begin until December 21 or 22.

WINTERGREEN, a small plant, several inches high, which grows in the woods of the northern hemisphere. Glossy, oval leaves, green all winter, grow on the ends of reddish stems. Small white or pink flowers spring

from the base of the leaf stems and scarlet berries follow them. The leaves yield an oil which is much used for flavoring and for medicinal purposes.

WINTHROP, JOHN (1588-1649), one of the early colonial governors in America, and one of the most admirable characters in early American history. He was born at Edwar-

ton, Suffolk, England, of wealthy parents, and was educated at Trinity College, Cam-

bridge. Puritan zeal prompted him to share the fortunes of the colonists, and in 1630 he sailed to America with 900 emigrants as gov-

ernor of Massachusetts Bay colony. From

then until the time of his death he worked for the spiritual and material interests of

his people. Wintrop helped to organize the New England Confederation, and was its first president. His Journal is a valuable record

of New England events from 1630 to 1649

WIRE, metal drawn into an even thread or slender rod, usually cylindrical in form.

The metals most commonly employed in the making of wire are gold, silver, copper and iron. The finest wire is made from platinum.

Wire was formerly produced by hammering metal into plates which were then cut into strips and rounded by beating. In modern

wire manufacture, steel or iron bullets are heated in a furnace to white heat and put through several turns of rolls, emerging from the last roll about a quarter of an inch in diameter. These rods are wound on reels while still hot, are cooled, boiled in sulphuric acid for cleaning, washed in water, coated in lime, baked for two hours at low temperature,

and then turned over to the wire drawer.

In order to draw these prepared rods into wires of smaller diameter, the workman

pulls them through a series of steel dies by means of a cast-iron reel. Very fine wires may be drawn as many as twenty times, each

time through smaller holes. As the process of drawing causes brittleness in wire, it must be annealed as often as demands by heating

in cast-iron pots, this process always being followed by an acid bath for cleaning. Wire

used for small springs or nails, when hardness is an essential, is not annealed. For

drawing very fine wires of gold, silver or platinum, dies of diamonds, rubies or other hard stones are used. Wire for outdoor use

is galvanized to prevent rusting.

The uses of wire are innumerable, from the forming of the gigantic steel cable, with

a tensile strength of 180 tons to the square inch, to the delicate micrometer of the telescope, employing platinum wires as fine as $18,700$ of an inch in diameter. Telephone and telegraph wires, trolley wires, wire netting and wire fencing are some of the most common uses. A sinister use during the war was that made of barbed wire enmeshed into an impenetrable network to hinder enemy advance. The United States army alone used 100,000 miles of barbed wire in its campaigns in France. American factories sold over 2,000,000 miles of this wire to the allied nations from 1915 to the date of the armistice in November, 1918.

WIRE GLASS, window glass made with an inside mat of open mesh wire. The wire is embedded in the molten glass at a temperature sufficiently high to insure adhesion of the glass to it. The surface of the pane can be finished in such style as to adapt the glass for different uses. It may be ribbed, polished or "rough rolled." Wire glass is strong, and is used for window panes where ordinary glass is apt to be broken. It is one of the most efficient safeguards against fire, since, if broken by heat, it does not fall. Two men claim the invention of wire glass, Frank Schuman of Philadelphia and Leon Appert of France.

WIRELESS TELEGRAPH. See TELEGRAPH, WIRELESS

WIRELESS TELEPHONE See TELEPHONE, WIRELESS

WIREWORMS, *wire'worms*, a name given by farmers to the larvae, or grubs, of several species of click beetles. The worms are said to live for years, during all which time they are destructive to vegetation. See CLICK BEETLE.



WISCONSIN, a north-central state of the American Union, one of the foremost American commonwealths in educational and

political matters, and industrially one of the most prosperous. Wisconsin is popularly called the *Badger State*, referring to the habits of the lead miners in early days, who lived in rude dugouts, after the fashion of the badger. The name *Wisconsin* is of Indian origin, and has been variously interpreted to mean *rushing river* and *great rocks*. The flower emblem of the state is the violet.

Location, Area, Population. Wisconsin lies north of Illinois and east of Minnesota and Iowa; nearly all of the western boundary is formed by the Saint Croix and the Mississippi rivers. A good portion of the eastern boundary line lies in Lake Michigan, the state adjoins the state of Michigan on the northeast, and at the extreme north it follows the shore line of Lake Superior. With a maximum length of 320 miles and a width of 295 miles, the state is irregularly oblong in shape and has an area of 56,086 square miles; of this total 810 square miles are water. Twenty-four states surpass it in area, and 12 in population, which in 1930 was 2,938,006, with an average density of 53.2 persons per square mile. Wisconsin has about four times as many inhabitants as Rhode Island, the most densely populated of our states, but it is almost 50 times as large as that smallest of commonwealths.

Peoples and Cities. The founders of the state came largely from New England and New York State. The foreign-born at one time made up a third of the population, but their ratio to the total number has declined. Germans constitute one-third of the foreign-born; next in order are Poles, Norwegians, Czechoslovakians, Swedes, Russians, Canadians and Englishmen. About 53 per cent of the people live in cities and towns of 2,500 or more inhabitants. There are 27 cities with populations exceeding 10,000. Milwaukee, the largest city, with a population of 578,249, is the twelfth city in the Union in size. The next six cities of the state are as follows: Racine, Madison, the state capital, Kenosha, Oshkosh, La Crosse, and Sheboygan.

About 45 per cent of the inhabitants are Roman Catholics, and over one-fourth are Lutherans.

Surface and Drainage. The surface of Wisconsin is generally a great rolling plain. A low height of land extends through the state north and south, a little east of the middle line, and at a point about 30 miles south of Lake Superior it meets another ele-

vation extending east and west. The highest altitudes of this ridge are about 1,800 feet. These ridges form watersheds from which the land slopes in all directions. There are no high mountains in the state, but the rivers flow through well-worn valleys in some localities, and along the Mississippi and other streams there are bluffs. There is also a very conspicuous bluff along Green Bay. The lowest part of the state borders on Lake Michigan, which is slightly less than 600 feet above sea level.

Wisconsin is divided into three drainage areas. The northwestern part of the state is drained into Lake Superior by a few short rivers, chief of which are the Montreal and the Bass Brule. The area east of the watershed extending north and south is drained into Lake Michigan, and with the exception of the Fox, all of the rivers in this region are short. Some of the most important are the Menominee, forming a large part of the boundary between Wisconsin and the northern peninsula of Michigan, the Peshtigo and the Oconto.

Nearly three-fourths of the state is drained into the Mississippi River. The chief tributaries are the Saint Croix, forming a part of the western boundary, the Chippewa, the Black, and the Wisconsin, which flows through the central part of the state and is the largest river wholly within its boundaries. Each of these rivers has numerous tributaries, but none of them is navigable for large boats. Through a part of its course the Wisconsin has cut its way through sandstone bluffs, forming the Dells (or Dalles, which see), noted for their beautiful scenery. In the southeastern, north-central and northern parts of the state are numerous lakes which are the favorite resorts for summer residents and also for hunters and fishermen. The largest of these is Lake Winnebago, almost directly south of Green Bay. Lakes Geneva and Mendota are noted for their beautiful landscape setting. The former is a popular summer resort; on the latter is the city of Madison, seat of the state university.

Climate. The winters are long and severe, but of uniform temperature, with many dry, clear days; the summers are short and hot. But the cold of winter and the heat of summer in the eastern section are tempered by the waters of Lake Michigan. In northern Wisconsin, snow usually falls early in the winter and covers the ground until late in the

spring, in the south there is often little snow. The average rainfall is 30 inches.

Mineral Resources Though the state derives much greater income from agriculture than from mining operations, it has valuable deposits of zinc, building stone, iron ore and clay. The total annual mineral output is valued at about \$18,000,000. The most important building stones are granite, limestone and sandstone, with an annual value of over \$5,000,000. Iron, zinc and lead are important products. Iron ore is found in the valley of the Menominee River and along the Penokee range in the northern part of the state. The deposits are a continuation of those in Michigan and Minnesota, and the ores are similar in quality. In quantity of output, however, Wisconsin is far behind Michigan and Minnesota. The products of each year often are valued at about \$3,000,000. Clay suitable for making brick and tile is widely distributed, and the manufacture of cream-colored brick is one of the most important industries of the state. Other products of value include natural cement, graphite and mineral waters.

Agriculture Originally a large part of the state was covered with forests, in the north the principal timber was pine. Regions between the forests consist of marsh or land covered with boulders. Hence this part of the state is not suited to general agriculture, but it is well adapted to dairying, this industry has been extensively developed. The middle and southern portions of the state consist of fertile prairie lands. They are supplied with an abundance of moisture, and the temperature is suitable for growing all crops produced in a medium or cool temperate climate.

Oats and corn are the most important grain crops, the annual harvest of oats at times exceeds 100,000,000 bushels. About 4,000,000 tons of hay are produced each year. Barley and rye are raised in large quantities, buckwheat is another important product. In the central region of the southern group of counties is a fertile tobacco belt by means of which Wisconsin holds seventh place among the states in the amount of tobacco raised. Sugar beets, potatoes, beans, peas, apples and small fruits are other flourishing products. The state is one of the few regions in America producing cranberries on a commercial scale; it is one of the first five states in the production of peas and beans.

Dairying is one of the most profitable lines of agriculture, and Wisconsin produces more cheese than any other state. Minnesota alone exceeds it in the output of creamery butter. Cows and heifers number more than 2,000,000, to them must be added 1,000,000 other cattle.

Manufactures. Wisconsin ranks tenth among the states in manufactures. In 1880, when wheat was still a leading crop, flour and grist-mill products were first among her manufactures. Subsequently lumber and timber stood at the head of the list, still later butter, cheese and condensed milk stood first.

There is a great diversity of manufactures, among these motor vehicles stand first with a yearly value of about \$219,000,000, while motor vehicle bodies and parts and rubber tires and tubes are worth an additional \$136,000,000. Butter, cheese and condensed milk are worth \$203,000,000. Other industries are foundry and machine shop products, paper and wood pulp, engines, turbines, wholesale meat packing, boots and shoes, knit goods, electrical machinery and aluminum. Milwaukee holds a leading position in brewing.

Transportation and Commerce. The western part of the state has an outlet through the Saint Croix and the Mississippi rivers, the northwestern section sends freight through Lake Superior, while the eastern portion, bordering in its entire length upon Lake Michigan, has communication with the Great Lakes through Racine, Milwaukee, Sheboygan, Manitowoc, Sturgeon Bay and other points.

Wisconsin maintains about 7,800 miles of steam railways. The leading railroads are the Chicago, Milwaukee, Saint Paul & Pacific, the Chicago & North Western, and the Minneapolis, Saint Paul & Sault Ste Marie, commonly called the "Soo." This line became a subsidiary of the Canadian Pacific and many years ago absorbed the old Wisconsin Central and thus gained connection with Chicago. The Green Bay & Western is the longest line extending wholly within the state. Several railroads developed to a great extent in other states have only a small mileage in Wisconsin; such are the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy, the Illinois Central and the Northern Pacific. Four strong bus companies have absorbed much of the traffic formerly carried by the interurban electric lines. Three interstate air lines serve Wisconsin.

The commerce of the state is extensive. Iron, dairy products, live stock, lumber and its manufactured products, flour and grist-mill products, potatoes and other vegetables are exported in large quantities. The imports consist of manufactured goods and machinery.

Government. The legislature consists of a senate and a house of representatives, the senate having thirty-three members, and the house, 100. The members of the assembly are elected for two years; of the senate, for four years. The sessions are biennial and are unlimited as to time. The executive department consists of a governor, a lieutenant-governor, a secretary of state, a treasurer and an attorney-general, each elected for two years, and the superintendent of public instruction, chosen at a spring election for a four-year term. In the judicial system there are the supreme court of seven judges elected for ten years, and the circuit courts in the several judicial circuits established by the legislature, each circuit having one judge elected by the people.

Much of the work of government in Wisconsin is done by departments either established or put into present form within the twentieth century. Each of these greater departments is headed by a group of three persons, usually called commissioners. They are appointed by the governor, subject to confirmation by the senate, for six years, terms are arranged to overlap so that commissions may never lack experienced members.

The list of these commissions is as follows: public service, highway, industrial, commissions; board of control for state institutions; tax and banking commissions; and the department of agriculture.

Education. Wisconsin has a system of public education extending from the kindergarten through the graduate and professional schools of the state university. The elementary and secondary schools care for more than 800,000 pupils and cost about \$22,000,000 annually, and the total yearly expenditure of the state and its subdivisions for all types of education is about \$70,000,000. The University of Wisconsin at Madison is at the head of the system, and is directly affiliated with the high schools throughout the state. There are nine institutions which began work as normal schools, but they are now called state teachers' colleges, and grant bachelors'

degree to graduates of their four-year courses. They are located at Milwaukee, Oshkosh, Platteville, River Falls, Stevens Point, Superior, Whitewater, La Crosse and Eau Claire, their aggregate enrollment is not far from 7,000. The state also supports Stout Institute at Menomonie in Dunn County, a nationally known training school for teachers of home economics, manual training and other vocational subjects. Wisconsin has a unique system of county training schools to prepare teachers for the rural schools. It has also been a great leader in vocational education. In connection with its educational department, Wisconsin maintains an excellent system of school libraries, which are so managed as to bring a large list of the best books within reach of every inhabitant of the state, at practically no expense. The traveling libraries have no connection with the educational department, being promoted by the state library commission. The library of the historical society at Madison is also one of great value. Another agency for extending popular education is the excellent extension system of the state university (see WISCONSIN, UNIVERSITY OF).

Important institutions of higher learning not under the control of the state include Beloit College at Beloit, Lawrence College at Appleton, Ripon College at Ripon, Milton College at Milton, Carroll College at Waukesha and Milwaukee-Downer College at Milwaukee. Of somewhat later foundation are Marquette University and Mount Mary College (for women), both of them Roman Catholic institutions located in Milwaukee.

Other Institutions. The school for the blind is at Janesville, the institution for the deaf and dumb is at Delavan, there are schools for the feeble-minded and epileptic at Chippewa Falls and at Union Grove in Racine County, the state public school for dependent children is situated at Sparta. There are hospitals for the insane at Mendota and Winnebago and a hospital for the criminal insane at Waupun, the incurable insane are cared for in county institutions which receive state aid. A state tuberculosis sanatorium was established at Wales in 1905 and later it was supplemented by a camp for male convalescents at Lake Tomahawk in Oneida County. There are also nearly twenty state-aided county tuberculosis sanatoria.

There is a state soldiers' home at Waupaca

Items of Interest on Wisconsin

Wisconsin was the last complete state made out of the Northwest Territory. There still remained as much of Minnesota as lay east of the Mississippi River, so that altogether the Northwest Territory became five and a half states.

Wisconsin's climate is marked by much sunshine and high temperature in summer and by clear sky with low temperature in winter, the climate is tempered to a limited degree by the large bodies of water east and north.

Many of the wild animals have been killed off, but deer are still plentiful in the northern part of the state, and wolves, black bears and foxes are occasionally seen, waterfowl of all kinds are abundant and fishing is both a great sport and an important business.

In Grant County there is a huge mound shaped like an elephant, with a trunk thirty-two feet long. This is a relic of the Mound Builders of prehistoric times.

Wisconsin's many lakes, waterfalls and rapids are the result of glacial action.

School attendance is compulsory for all children between the ages of 8 and 14, in cities for the entire school year, and in towns and villages for six months. Public schools are open to pupils aged 5 to 21.

The highest point in the state, Rub Hill, is in Marathon County. It has an altitude of 1,940 feet.

Questions on Wisconsin

Describe briefly the surface and drainage of Wisconsin.

Name five important agricultural products and four minerals.

What can you say about the importance of dairying in Wisconsin?

What is the most important manufacturing industry?

Name five other manufacturing industries.

Name five important agricultural institutions.

Explain, as fully as you can, Milwaukee's importance in commerce and manufacture.

and a national soldiers' home at Milwaukee. The penal and reformatory institutions consist of a state prison at Waupun, a state reformatory near Green Bay, an industrial school for boys at Waukesha, a home of correction and industrial school for girls at Milwaukee, and an industrial home for women in Fond du Lac County.

History. Probably the first white man to enter the territory of Wisconsin was Jean Nicolet, who was dispatched in 1634 by Champlain and who reached the shores of Green Bay. Other traders and missionaries followed, including Radisson and Groseilliers, Father Allouez and Marquette and Joliet. Meantime, several missions had been established, one at La Pointe on Lake Superior in 1665 and one at the site of De Pere in 1669. By the Treaty of Paris, in 1763, the territory, with all the northwest, was transferred to Great Britain and, after the Revolution, to the United States, where it formed a part of the Northwest Territory. However, the French and Indians in the region still remained hostile to the United States and fought against it during the War of 1812. The discovery of lead mines eventually brought an rapid influx into the territory, and after the defeat of Black Hawk there was a large agricultural immigration.

Wisconsin was successfully joined to Indiana and Michigan, it was erected into a separate territory in 1836. In 1847, the population of the state having been vastly increased, a constitution was adopted, and Wisconsin was admitted to the Union in the following year. For a time the chief incident in the political history of the state was the scandal arising from the promiscuous granting and sale of public lands to railroads. One of the first movements leading to the organization of the Republican party was a convention at Ripon, Wis., in 1854. The state was consistently opposed to slavery, and its supreme court declared that the Fugitive Slave Law was unconstitutional in the state. During the Civil War, Wisconsin furnished more than her quota of troops. Since that period the state has been almost consistently Republican in politics. However, after 1901, when the elder La Follette became governor, the Republican party was divided into two factions, the Progressives and the Stalwarts; they have alternated in the political control of the state.

Since 1900, Wisconsin has passed many

progressive laws, including workmen's compensation, mothers' pension and child labor measures and a law regulating campaign contributions. In 1913 there was enacted a law requiring a physical examination for all men who applied for marriage licenses. This was subsequently upheld by the state supreme court. Wisconsin was the first state to enact a plan for unemployment insurance.

Related Articles Consult the following titles for additional information:

CITIES	
Appleton	Janesville
Ashland	Kenosha
Beloit	La Crosse
Chippewa Falls	Madison
Eau Claire	Manitowoc
Fond du Lac	Marinette
Green Bay	Milwaukee

PHYSICAL FEATURES	
Dalles	Mississippi River
Great Lakes	Wisconsin River

HISTORY	
Black Hawk	Ordinance of 1787
Northwest Territory	

WISCONSIN, UNIVERSITY OF, one of the largest and most progressive of the American state universities, instruction began at Madison in 1819.

The university stands at the head of the educational system of the state and gives free tuition to students, who are residents in Wisconsin, in all departments except in the library school and the Wisconsin High School. Through an admirably equipped and organized extension department thousands of persons unable to attend regular university sessions are given exceptional advantages. The university maintains three colleges—letters and science, engineering, agriculture, art schools—law, medicine, nursing, education, library, graduate, two divisions—physical education and university extension.

The library building is one of the finest in the United States; it contains over 453,000 volumes. Adjacent is the library of the Wisconsin State Historical Society with 371,000 volumes and the library of the Academy of Sciences, Arts and Letters with 6,000 volumes.

During the regular session there are about 8,000 students in residence, the faculty numbers nearly 1,300. The report of the American Council of Education prepared by 2,000 educational experts placed the university second in the nation as qualified to give graduate instruction, that is, in 31 out of the specified 35 important fields of knowledge.

WISCONSIN RIVER, the principal river of the state whose name it bears. It rises near the boundary between Michigan and



Wisconsin, flows southward to Portage City, thence in a southwest direction, entering the Mississippi River four miles south of Prairie du Chien. Its length is about 600 miles, and it is navigable for steamboats to Portage City, about 200 miles. Here a canal connects it with the Fox River. Its passage through some deep gorges forms the celebrated Dales, near Kilbourn City.

WISTARIA, a climbing shrub of the pea family, native to China and North America. Several varieties have been introduced into England. When in flower they are among the most ornamental of garden plants. The flowers, shaped like pea-blossoms, are of various tints and shades of lavender, and hang in clusters which sometimes are several feet long. The Chinese and American species are much used in the United States for garden ornament.

WISTER, OWEN (1860-), an American novelist and story-writer, born in Philadelphia and educated at Harvard. He was admitted to the bar, but after two years gave up law work for literature and won wide notice through his stories of Western life. Of these *The Virginian* has been most popular. Wister has written biographies of Great, Oliver Wendell Holmes, Franklin, and Theodore Roosevelt. Among his later books are *Lady Baltimore*, *The Simple Spelling Bee*, *The Seven Ages of Washington*, *Members of the Family*, *The Pentecost of Calamity*, *The Ancient Grudge*, *Neighbors Hanesforth*, and *Watch Your Throat*.

WITCH'CAFT At all times in the world's history there has existed a belief that some persons, in league with powers of darkness, had powers to cast "spells" or inflict injury at a distance by supernormal means. This belief became general in the fifteenth, sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and in England and America the use of the supposed power to harm through cooperation of a demon was called *witchcraft*, meaning *craft or practices of a witch*.

Women were most often accused of witchcraft, though men and even children were suspected. Laws were passed to deal with them and persecutions were numerous. It is estimated that in England, Germany, France, Spain and Italy 100,000 innocent persons perished under the charge of witchcraft between the middle of the fifteenth and the middle of the sixteenth century. Various tests were applied to ascertain whether or

not the person was a witch, such as pricking the body of the victim all over, to find the insensitive spots protected by the devil, and throwing witches into deep water, under the presumption that they would float if possessed.

The witchcraft frenzy broke out among the Puritans of New England in 1643. In Salem, Mass., Cotton Mather, a clergyman of wide influence and great power as a pulpit orator, wrote a work entitled *Memorable Providences Relating to Witchcraft and Possessions* and another entitled *Wonders of the Invisible World*. By the distribution of his writings and his utterances in the pulpit, he succeeded in arousing the superstition to the highest pitch, at a time when it was beginning to abate in Europe.

Many of the teaching men of the province were influenced by his writings and sermons, and, as a clergyman in those days constituted a part of the magisterial authority, he succeeded in procuring the execution of nineteen persons. The good sense of the Puritans at last revolted against these atrocities, and a reaction set in. Samuel Parris, a clergyman, who was one of the chief persecutors, made a confession; others also relented, and there were no more persecutions for witchcraft in the American colonies. In England the last trial for witchcraft was in 1722, and it resulted in acquittal.

WITCH HAZEL, a North American shrub which is of economic importance as the source of a healing lotion obtained by distilling the leaves in alcohol. The plant has branches of a very peculiar appearance, for they twist and curve in all directions. In olden times the witch hazel was believed to have supernatural power, and the forked twigs were used as divining rods. The plant does not bloom until late in the fall, and the flowers open the following year. The yellow flowers grow in showy clusters. A small, woody capsule encloses the seeds.

WITENAGEMOT, *wit e nāg e mōt'*, in English history, the name given to the old Anglo-Saxon assembly, which consisted of the king, the ealdormen, the higher ecclesiastics and the thanes. This body had power to elect the king, when a succession was in dispute, or to depose a king if it saw fit, to make treaties, to collect revenue and to enact laws. Under a weak king it was able to exercise all of these functions, but a strong king might easily make most of them merely

WOLF

normal. The Norman Conquest put an end to this assembly, and the Parliament which grew up later in England was a separate institution, though it had its roots in this early body.

WITNESS, in law, (1) one who signs his name as affirmation of the genuineness of another's signature, (2) a person who gives testimony under oath in a judicial proceeding. Any person can be summoned before a court to give evidence. If he fails to appear he is liable to punishment for contempt (see *Contempt*). The summons by which he is ordered to appear is called a *subpoena*; if he is ordered to bring a document or other thing in his possession, he is summoned by a *subpoena duces tecum*, meaning bring with you under penalty.

WITTE, vif'te, Simeon Yulianovich (1840-1915), a Russian statesman and diplomat, born at Tiflis. After his graduation from the New Russian University at Odessa, he took up journalism; later he was engaged by the government in railway service. In the Russo-Turkish War Witte had charge of the transportation of troops on the Odessa railway and so distinguished himself that at the close of the war he was made manager of the Southwestern Railway of Russia. Two years later he became chief of the Imperial Railway department and president of the tariff commission. His next promotion was to the office of Minister of Finance, in 1893. His policy in this office led to the rapid development of manufacturing industries in Russia. He introduced the gold standard, made the sale of alcohol a government monopoly, concluded several important commercial treaties, especially with Germany, and made large foreign loans, whereby the Trans-Siberian Railway could be built. In 1903 a strong opposition arose and Witte was removed from power and made president of the Committee of Ministers. At the Treaty of Portsmouth, N. H., at the close of the Russo-Japanese War, Witte was especially prominent. When he returned to Russia, the czar conferred upon him the title of count. In 1905 he was appointed Prime Minister of Russia, but in 1906 he resigned this position.

WITTENBERG, vif'ten b*er*g, Germany, a town in the province of Saxony, Prussia, situated on the Elbe, fifty-nine miles southwest of Berlin, of special historical interest because of its association with Luther and Melanchthon. It was to the door of the

Schlosskirche at Wittenberg that Luther nailed his celebrated thesis, and within this church both Luther and Melanchthon are buried. (See *Luther*, *Martin*, *Bornemann*, *Erasmus*.) The town contains a number of educational institutions, in one of which the University of Wittenberg, Luther for a time was instructor. The industries include the manufacture of woolen and hemp goods, hardware, machinery, pottery, etc. Population, about 20,000.

WOAD, woad, a group of plants of the mustard family, shrubby natives of the Mediterranean region. Dyer's wood, a species yielding a blue dye, was formerly much cultivated. This has been superseded by indigo, but a fine blue is still obtained by mixing the two. The leaves when gathered are reduced to a paste, fermented for two weeks, made into balls, sun-dried, and subjected to further fermentation.

WODEN, wod'en. See *Omn.*

WOLF, a carnivorous animal, allied to the dog. The common European wolf, found almost everywhere in North America, also, is yellowish-gray, with a blackish band, or



WOLF

streak, on the fore legs. The ears are erect and pointed. The hair is harsh and strong. The tail straight, bushy and drooping. The height at the shoulder is about two and a half feet. The wolf is swift of foot and a crafty, an enemy to man and his. It usually runs in packs to hunt the larger quadrupeds, such as deer and elk. When hard pressed with hunger, these packs have been known to attack isolated travellers and even to enter villages and carry off children. In general,

however, wolves are cowardly and stealthy. They are still plentiful in many parts of Europe and North America. They probably ceased to exist in England about the end of the fifteenth century. The small *prairie wolf* or *coyote*, a member of the wolf family, living on the western plains of the United States, is a burrowing animal.

WOLFE, JAMES (1727-1759), a British general, whose victory in the Battle of Quebec, September 13, 1759, won Canada for Great Britain. Wolfe was born at Westerham, Kent, England. He entered the army early and served in Scotland and in Flanders. When it was decided, in 1758, to send an expedition to Cape Breton, Wolfe was appointed by Pitt brigadier-general. He advised an attack on Quebec and was selected to lead the enterprise, in which capacity he showed wonderful courage and genius. After having been driven back from the fortress, he led his men, by night, up a steep, narrow path, to the Heights of Abraham, above the city, and here he met the French under Montcalm. While leading a charge, he had one of his wrists shattered by a shot, but he did not stop. Another shot struck him, and he still advanced, but a third lodged in his breast and proved fatal. His last words, when he was told that the French were retreating, were, "Now God be praised, I die in peace." A monument on the battlefield bears a simple inscription in honor of the conqueror. Since 1773 another monument has graced Westminster Abbey in London, and one is in Governor's Garden, Quebec.

WOLF FISH, a savage fish, that has a mouth armed with sharp, strong teeth. When captured, the fish is said to bite the nets and even to attack the fishermen. Around the coasts of Great Britain it attains a length of six or seven feet, but in more southern seas it grows to a still larger size. In Iceland the natives eat the flesh and make the tough skin into a sort of leather suitable for purses, bookcovers and the like.

WOLSELEY, woos'ly, GARRET JOSEPH, Sir, Viscount (1833-1913), a British general, born in Ireland. He entered the army as ensign in 1852, took part in the second Burmese War, where he was severely wounded, and served with distinction in the Crimean War. He engaged in the siege and capture of Lucknow during the Sepoy Rebellion, and was in command in 1860 in the Chinese War. In the following year he was dispatched to Canada, and in 1870 he carried the Red

River expedition to a successful issue. Three years afterward he was appointed to the command of an expedition to punish the king of Ashanti, and after a brief campaign he entered Kumassi and subdued the king. He was publicly honored and given a grant by the government of \$125,000.

He was placed in command in Egypt, in 1882, where his forces successfully stormed the lines of Tel-el-Kebir and captured Arab Pasha. For this he received the thanks of Parliament, was created a baron and was promoted to the rank of general. In 1882 he was sent to Egypt to rescue General Gordon at Khartum, but arrived two days after Gordon had been killed and Khartum had fallen. On his return to England he was created a viscount. In 1890 he was made commander of the troops in Ireland, and in 1895 he was raised to the supreme command of the British army.

WOLSEY, woos'ly, THOMAS, Cardinal (1475?-1530), an English statesman, for many years the most powerful man in England, below the king. He was born at Ipswich, the son of a butcher, and was educated at Magdalen College, Oxford, where he took his degree as a scholar of distinction. When Henry VIII became king, the advancement of Wolsey was rapid. Successively he was appointed canon of Windsor, dean of York, bishop of Lincoln, archbishop of York, lord chancellor of the kingdom, cardinal and Pope's legate.

His power and his revenues were equaled only by those of the Crown. Part of his immense revenues he expended in display, and part for the advancement of learning. He endowed the College of Christ's Church, Oxford, founded several lectures and built the palace at Hampton Court, which he presented to the king. His preformance by the king was largely the result of a remarkable series of diplomatic victories, in which Wolsey had been the means of enabling Henry to hold the balance between Francis I and Emperor Charles V.

In his ambitious career the cardinal had made many enemies, who were held in check so long as he retained the favor of his royal master. This favor Wolsey lost when he failed to obtain from Pope Clement a decision granting the king's divorce from Catherine of Aragon. The enemies of the fallen prelate now succeeded in banishing him from court and stripping him of his dignities.

Finally, after a brief respite, during which he was restored to some of his offices and had returned to his seat of York, he was arrested on a charge of high treason. On his way to London, as a prisoner, he died at Leicester Abbey.

WOLVERINE, *wôl'vûr sôr'*. See **GLOVER**.

WOMAN'S CHRISTIAN TEMPERANCE UNION, *The National*, a woman's organization, founded in Cleveland, Ohio, in 1874, for the purpose of unifying the work of women in temperance and social reform. It now has state, district, county and local branches in every state and territory, and it contains a membership of over 800,000. It is the largest organization exclusively of women that has ever been effected and has over forty distinct lines of work, each under the management of national, state, district, county and local superintendents. The society has been instrumental in securing in nearly every state the enactment of laws requiring the public schools to give instruction in the effects of stimulants and narcotics on the human system, through their influence many laws for the better protection of girls and women have also been passed, and industrial homes for girls and houses of refuge for fallen women have been established. The official organ is the *Union Signal*, published at Chicago. Headquarters of the society are at Evanston, Ill., in "Rest Cottage," the former home of Miss Frances E. Willard.

The World's Christian Temperance Union was formed in 1883, through the influence of Miss Willard. It now has local organizations in most Christian countries. The badge of members everywhere is the white ribbon.

WOMAN'S RELIEF CORPS, a patriotic organization founded in Denver, Colo., in 1888, by a group of women desirous of acting in cooperation with the G. A. R. The specific objects of the society may be stated as follows:

To aid and assist the G. A. R. and perpetuate the memory of their heroic dead, to find homes for the Union Veterans, their widows and orphans, and to emulate the deeds of our army nurses, to maintain true allegiance to the United States of America, to inculcate lessons of patriotism and love of country among our children and in the communities in which we live, to encourage the spread of universal liberty and equal rights to all.

Though few members of the G. A. R. survive, the Relief Corps maintains its organization in most Northern states.

WOMAN SUFFRAGE, the right of women to vote on an equality with men. The agitation to give women a political status equal to that of men is merely one phase of the great movement to recognize women in every possible way—legally, socially, intellectually, morally, politically—the equal of man. In the field of business this agitation for a fair and equal opportunity for women had made more progress than in any other field, up to 1920, when they were made voters. In nearly all departments of skilled labor, in clerical positions, in the professions, women are efficient and successful workers.

The movement to secure woman suffrage is distinctly a product of the nineteenth century, although many authors and statesmen since Plato have discussed the position of woman and have urged equal rights. One of the first American suffragettes was Abigail Adams, the wife of John Adams, who wanted the Constitution to recognize women as voters.

In nearly all civilized countries women either have won or are still fighting for suffrage, and in most of the countries liberated from autocracy during or at the close of the World War the women were immediately given political rights when new governments were set up. Thus, women vote in Czechoslovakia, Finland, Germany, Austria, Hungary, Poland and Burma. In all the divisions of the United Kingdom women voted for Parliamentary candidates for the first time in December, 1918. New Zealand, Australia and South Africa are equal-suffrage nations, and in Canada women enjoy provincial suffrage in all the provinces except Quebec. Denmark, Norway, Holland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden have also enfranchised their women citizens.

In the United States. In the United States the movement for woman suffrage really dates from 1848, when the first woman suffrage convention was held, in Seneca Falls, N. Y. Among its leaders were Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Lucretia Mott. In 1869, through the efforts of Mrs. Stanton and Susan B. Anthony, the National Woman's Suffrage Association was formed. In 1890 this organization united with one founded the same year by Henry Ward Beecher, and the name National American

Woman's Suffrage Association was adopted. The organization in cooperation with numerous state societies worked tirelessly for the extension of women's political rights, and in



REFORM THE AMENDMENT

The map shows the status of women suffrage on August 1, 1920. The white areas were full-suffrage states; slanting lines indicated Presidential suffrage; squares, primary suffrage; black, no suffrage. A Constitutional amendment to grant suffrage to all women of the United States passed the House of Representatives on May 21, 1919; the Senate, June 4; it was ratified in 1920.

1919 a woman suffrage amendment to the Constitution passed both Houses of Congress. It was sent to the states for ratification, and in August, 1920, this was accomplished. By referring to the map the reader may see the progress of the movement.

WOMBAT, a burrowing mammal belonging to the same order as the kangaroo, having the characteristic pouch for carrying the young (see MARSUPIALS). Wombats are found only in Australia and Tasmania. They look somewhat like small bears, are two to three feet in length and have a coat of long, coarse fur, yellowish-black or grayish-brown in color. The head is broad and flat, the eyes and ears are small, and the tail is short. The creatures feed on leaves, roots and vegetables, coming out of their burrows at night in search of food. Their flesh tastes somewhat like pork; the fur is used in making rugs and mats.

WOMEN'S CLUBS. With the increase in facilities for the education of women and with their growing share in public life, came the feeling of the necessity for cooperation along lines in which they were interested. The first societies of women were religious, charitable and social organizations. As educational advantages were extended to women, study clubs sprang up among them, and from these have developed the highly efficient women's organizations of to-day.

At present there exist in the United States a great number of clubs for women. A great many of these clubs are *departmental*, that is, are divided into groups interested respectively in literature, household economics, municipal improvements, politics, and so on, each group cooperating with the others and the interests and activities often overlapping. Others are devoted exclusively to politics, art, travel, domestic science, or are made up of members of some profession.

Within recent years women's clubs have brought about many reforms in school administration and municipal management. They have turned their attention systematically to promoting child welfare, improving the condition of working women and awakening the public conscience generally to a realization of the need of reform. In many cities, owing to their influence, vacant property has been converted into playgrounds or into kitchen gardens for the poor. Prisons, asylums, charitable organizations, dance halls and innumerable other institutions have felt their influence.

In 1889 an invitation was issued by a prominent club in New York to different clubs throughout the United States to a general meeting. In the following year the General Federation of Women's Clubs was formed, the membership consisting originally of sixty-three clubs. At present the General Federation holds meetings every two years in some large city. The total membership is about 2,000,000.

WOOD, LEONARD (1860-1927), an American soldier and administrator who was the originator of military camps for college students and citizens' training camps, such as that at Plattsburg, N. Y. He was born at Winchester, N. H., and educated at Pierce Academy, Middleboro, and Harvard University, where he was graduated in medicine in 1884. He joined the medical staff of the army, and in 1886 was the medical line officer in Captain LEONARD WOOD (afterwards Major-General) Lawton's campaign against the Apacha Indians. In 1903 he received the Congressional Medal of Honor for distinguished services in that cam-



paign. He was appointed assistant surgeon of the army in 1888, and in twelve years rose to the rank of major-general of volunteers.

At the outbreak of the Spanish-American War, General Wood (then Colonel) and Theodore Roosevelt organized the First Cavalry, known as the "Rough Riders." Wood was first and Roosevelt second in command of the regiment which is famous for its gallant charge at San Juan Hill.

General Wood was appointed governor-general of Cuba in 1899 and continued in the position until the United States retired from the island in 1902. He displayed rare tact and administrative ability, especially in improving the sanitary conditions of Santiago and Havana. Yellow fever, a former scourge of the island, has been practically unknown in Cuba since General Wood's administration. In 1903 he was placed in charge of a division of the army in the Philippines and in the same year was made a major-general in the regular army. In 1908 he was made chief of the Department of the East, with headquarters at New York. In 1910 he was special ambassador to Argentina, and the same year was appointed chief of staff, retaining the position until 1914, when he returned to the command of the Department of the East.

While he was chief of staff, General Wood inaugurated military training camps for college students and the citizens' training camps, which later were important agencies in training officers for the army. He has always been a strong advocate of military preparedness. When the United States entered the World War, General Wood was transferred to the Department of the South, with headquarters at Charleston, S C. In April, 1918, he was assigned to the command of the 88th Division at Camp Funston, Kansas. The Washington administration did not permit him to take a command in France. From Camp Funston he was transferred to the Central Department, with headquarters at Chicago, in 1919. In 1920 he sought the Republican Presidential nomination, and in 1921 was appointed governor-general of the Philippine Islands by President Harding.

WOOD ALCOHOL, or **METHYLATED ALCOHOL**, a liquid having the appearance and many of the properties of pure alcohol. It is obtained from the destructive distillation of wood, and is used as a solvent for resins and varnishes and as a fuel in the same

way as ordinary alcohol. It mixes with water in all proportions. A mixture of seventy-five per cent water and twenty-five per cent alcohol in an automobile radiator will prevent freezing at a temperature of five degrees above zero, a mixture of fifty per cent each will prevent freezing at twenty degrees below zero. Wood alcohol should never be used medicinally, either externally as a liniment or internally, as it is very poisonous, producing vertigo, coma, blindness and death.

WOODBINE. See HOMER'S WOOD

WOOD CARVING, the art of producing sculpture in wood. Wood carving was probably the earliest form of sculpture. As far as known, the Egyptians were the first wood carvers. Specimens of their work, made more than 4000 b c, are still in existence, and it is quite probable that the Greeks obtained their first ideas of sculpture from the wood carving of these people. The Romans also carved many of their early statues from wood. In the first century of the Christian era wood carving was used in the decoration of churches, and many pieces still in existence show the remarkable skill of the artists and workmen of that time. From the early centuries of the Christian Era wood carving fell into disuse, until about the eleventh century, when it was again revived, and used, as before, in the decoration of churches.

Wood carving as practised to-day is confined to the ornamentation of altars, pulpits and choir stalls for churches; to a few articles of the most expensive furniture; to the decoration of expensive interiors of dwellings and public halls, and to ornaments. Among European nations the art is practised with the greatest skill in Tyrol, Switzerland, and some of the provinces of Italy and Germany. Among the Eastern nations the Persians are remarkably skilful in carving wood. The work is finely executed, but shows a tendency to overcrowding, which mars the general effect. The Chinese and Japanese also produce wood carvings of decided merit.

All the finest work is done by hand, with small chisels, shaped for the purpose. Oak, mahogany, ebony and many of the softer woods are used. Before carving, the wood should be thoroughly seasoned. The completed work is usually finished by rubbing down in oil. In the United States but little hand carving is done, though in some manual training schools it is now a part of the course.

WOOD'CHUCK, the popular name of an animal of the squirrel family, common in the United States and Canada. The woodchuck is the American marmot and is often called the *ground hog*. It is of a heavy form, from fifteen to eighteen inches long, blackish or grizzled above and chestnut red below. It feeds on vegetables and is very destructive to crops of red clover and alfalfa. In the winter it hibernates in burrows. There is a popular superstition that the woodchuck first comes out on Candlemas Day (February 2); if it sees its shadow it returns to sleep, because it knows that six weeks of cold weather will follow.

WOOD'COCK, a bird belonging to the same family as the snipe, differing from the latter in having a more bulky body and shorter legs. It is widely distributed over North America, Europe, Northern Asia and Japan. It spends the summers in pine forests and the winters in southern swamps and moist woodlands, where worms, snails and slugs are plentiful. It is active by night and quiet during the day. The bird is about twelve inches long. The upper plumage is an intermingling of ruddy, yellowish, and ash, and is marked with black spots. Underneath, it is yellowish red with zigzag markings. The eyes are large and are set far back. The bill, nearly half the length of the body, is used with great skill in digging worms.

WOOD DISTILLATION, conversion of the volatile substances in wood to obtain charcoal, wood alcohol, acetic acid, acetone, creosote, and wood turpentine. Coniferous as well as deciduous trees lend themselves to distillation. Wood turpentine is a by-product of the former, but the yield of acid is less than with hard woods. The still or retort into which the liquid is heated, the condenser which cools the vapors, and the receiver which collects the distillate, constitute the simplest distillation apparatus.

WOOD ENGRAVING. See ENGRAVING, subhead *Wood Engraving*.

WOODEN HORSE. See MYTHOLOGY, *Story of the Wooden Horse*.

WOODMEN OF AMERICA, MODERN, a fraternal and insurance society founded in 1883 at Lyons, Iowa, and the following year chartered under the laws of Illinois. It is the largest fraternal benefit organization in America, having a membership of more than a million. The head officer is known as head

consul, and the various geographical divisions, of which there are more than 14,000, are called camps. Since its founding the order has paid out in death and benefit claims more than \$500,000,000. One of the beneficial features of the society is a large and well-equipped tuberculosis sanatorium at Woodman, Colo.

WOODMEN OF THE WORLD, a fraternal and insurance order founded in 1890 at Omaha, Neb. The organization is divided geographically into three main camps, one of which is the Sovereign Camp of the World, whose executive committee is also the governing body of the entire order. The Woodman's Circle, an affiliated organization, of which Woodmen may become members, is controlled by a body called the Supreme Forest. Woodmen pay old-age benefits and erect monuments to deceased members. By levying a special assessment they were able to pay benefits in all cases of members killed in the World War. Since its founding the order has paid out in benefits more than \$100,000,000. It has more than 13,000 subordinate camps and a membership of approximately 1,000,000.

WOODPECKER, the name of a large group of climbing birds, of which there are



YELLOW-BELLIED SAP SUCKER

a number of different species. They have long, straight, angular beaks, adapted to perforating the bark of trees. Their tongues are long, slender and armed with a barbed,

WOOD PEWEE

horny tip. They can thrust their tongues far out of their mouths and so spear insects in the depths of their burrows. Their tongues are also covered with a sticky, slimy substance, that helps to hold their prey when feeding; they usually ascend the tree spirally, aided by the spiny points which terminate their tail feathers. They tap here and there on the tree-trunk, searching for the holes in which insects are hidden, and often tear away large parts of rotten trees, for the larvae concealed in them.

The sap sucker is a species that is fond of the sap of trees and bores round holes, which it arranges with geometrical exactness, in broad bands around the trunk of a tree. It especially favors the pines, and in feeding it moves about over the checkerboard of holes, taking the sap from them regularly, as it accumulates. The wry-billed woodpecker of the southern United States is a large bird, about twenty-one inches long, bright black and white in color, the male having a large bright scarlet crest. Like most of the other woodpeckers, this one excavates its nest in suitable dead trees. The red-headed woodpecker, the black and white woodpecker, the hairy woodpecker and the downy woodpecker are well known in the Northern states. The redheaded woodpecker often hights on the shingles of houses or on a hollow branch and strikes his bill in a noisy clatter, stopping now and then to call out his hoarse, rough note. The woodpeckers are found in almost every temperate part of the globe, except that none ever existed in Australia and Egypt. See *PYRRHOCORYPHUS*.

WOOD PEWEE, a little bird of the flycatcher family, related to the phoebe. It is brown on the back and yellowish-white underneath, the quills are brown, with light edges. The spread of the wings is about twelve inches. The bird has a rapid flight and catches insects with skill. Its low, plaintive little note, *pss-a-wet*, may be heard in the woods, all through the long summer, at early dawn and during the twilight hours. The birds spend the summer in the United States and Canada, and in winter they migrate to South America. The nest is a wonderful structure of mud, grass and moss lined with down and other soft materials, and hangs brackets against a beam or tree. Two broods are raised annually in spring and autumn. See *PRONOTUS*.

WOOD SPIRIT See *MURRAYLAND SNAKE*

WOOL

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WOODSTOCK, ONT., the county town of Oxford County, is situated about midway between Detroit and Niagara Falls, on the Canadian Pacific and the Canadian National Rys., and on a line of the Canadian National, which runs from Port Dover on Lake Erie to Owen Sound and other Georgian Bay ports. It is also connected with the Michigan Central and Wabash systems by a branch of the Canadian Pacific. The city is beautifully situated at the confluence of the Thames River and Cedar Creek. Its famous avenues of trees, general attractiveness and healthfulness make the city a favorite summer resort.

Woodstock is an important manufacturing and commercial center. The leading manufacturers include furniture, pianos and organs, textiles, wagons and sleighs, harness, cereals, flour, agricultural implements, automobiles, stoves and furnaces and numerous other products. The city has excellent hotels, a collegiate institute and a Y. W. C. A. It is also the seat of Woodstock College. Population in 1921, 9,835, in 1931, 11,935.

WOOL AND WOOLEN MANUFACTURE. Wool, the modified hair of sheep and several species of goats, is, with the exception of cotton, the fiber most extensively used in the manufacture of cloth and clothing. Woools afford warmth without great weight, and are a protection against extreme heat as well as against cold. They are soft and flexible, and of them the most healthful clothing is made.

Structure and Grades. If we draw a fiber of wool through the fingers from tip to base it feels rough; if we draw it from base to tip, however, it is smooth and soft. An examination of wool through the microscope shows the cause of this difference. Wool fiber consists of minute scales or plates, which overlap like the scales on a fish. The difference in quality of the fiber is due to the difference of these scales in size and shape.

Wool is graded as coarse, medium and fine, according to the length and size of the fiber. The finest sheep's wool is obtained from the Merino sheep and varieties that have been developed from this breed. The wool from which alpaca and mohair are made is that of the Cashmere goat, from which the soft, silken Persian shawls and rugs are made. Some wool resembles fur in fineness.

For purposes of manufacture, wool is divided into carding wool, which includes the

of short, curly fibers, and *combing wool*, which includes the long fibers. The coarsest of the long fiber wools are known as *carpet* and *blanket wools*. The quality of wool varies in the same fleece, that on the shoulders and sides being the best and that on the back the poorest.

Production. The demand for wool has not decreased by reason of the introduction of substitutes. The cotton market has to meet the competition of rayon products, though some rayon has a cotton base, much of it has a wood foundation. Though no competing textile challenges woolen cloth, in the manufacture of woolen goods there is frequently considerable adulteration, "all-wool" fabrics incline to be increasingly expensive, for not always is the supply in keeping with the demand.

The principal wool-producing countries are Argentina, Australia, the United States, British India, China, Italy, Russia, South Africa, Spain, and New Zealand. Canada is not a large world factor, for the Dominion has only about 8,500,000 sheep. The number of sheep in the United States averages somewhat more than 50,000,000 from year to year, and the fleeces secured from them exceed 350,000,000 pounds. The entire wool production of the world is about 3,500 million pounds.

Manufacture. The following are the chief processes employed in making woolen cloth:

When the wool is brought to the factory, it is carefully sorted, and that having the same grade of fiber is placed together. It is then thoroughly cleaned by being dusted, scourred with soap or lye and hot water, and then rinsed. After this, if colored cloth is to be made, the wool is dyed. It is then dried and is ready for the second important step in the process, that of preparing it for the loom.

The dried wool is first run through a machine, which removes any burs that may have adhered to the fiber. It is then run through the *picker*, which pulls all of the little tufts of wool apart and also enables the manufacturer to mix wools of different colors in any proportion desired. By mixing white and brown or blue and black or blue and gray, many very pleasing effects are obtained. After picking, the wool passes through the carding machines, of which there are usually three. Each of these draws out the fiber and straightens it and places the wool in the form of a loose band, or roll. Each successive ma-

chine straightens the fiber and reduces the size of this band, making it each time proportionately stronger. When the wool leaves the third card, it is in the form of a *sliver*, an untwisted yarn a little larger than the heavy crocheting yarn. As it comes from this machine it is wound upon large spools, or bobbins, and is ready for spinning.

The spinning is done on the mule jenny, and a large number of threads are spun at a time. The size of the thread and the hardness of the twist depend upon the way in which the machine is gaged. For a fine thread that is hard twisted, a machine which revolves very rapidly and also draws the thread out rapidly, is necessary. The spun yarn is wound upon spools ready for being placed in the loom. The arrangement for this consists of frames upon which these spools are placed in such a position that the thread unwinds from them directly, to make the warp of a width and number of threads desired. The woven cloth is finished in the style desired, possibly re-dyed, pressed and wound into bundles containing about fifty yards each, in which form it is placed upon the market.

The manufacture of worsted is much like the production of wooleens. Threads for wooleen goods are carded, but the fibers are left mixed and matted so that the thread is irregular. Worsted thread is not only carded but it is combed as well. The fibers lay parallel to each other and the thread is regular with the short fibers removed. The thread also presents a brighter appearance, a distinct pattern and a smooth weave.

The principal styles in worsteds are cashmere, voiles, merinos, crepe-de-chines, de-laines and materials for coats and trousers.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

Alpaca	Sheep
Cashmere Goat	Shoddy
Dyeing	Spinning
Felt	Tassel
Fiber	Tweeds
Flannel	Weaving
Mohair	Worsted

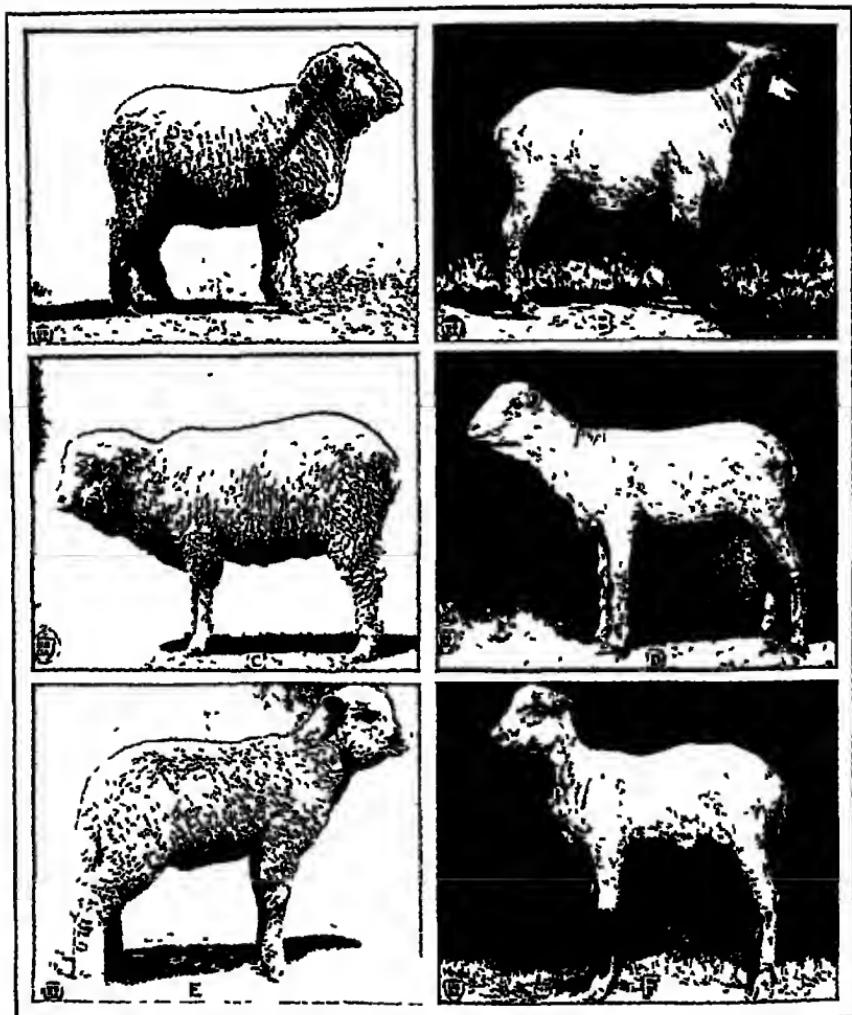
WOOLCOTT, ALMAYDNER (1887-), an American author and critic, born in New Jersey and educated at Hamilton College and Columbia University. He spent two years in France as an enlisted man, and was one of the editors of *The Stars and Stripes*. Woolcott wrote several books, the most successful being *While Romeo Burns*. Other volumes of note are *Giving to Pieces* and *Two Gentlemen and a Lady*.



1. Shearing of sheep
and grading

WOOL
Combining
Downing
Scouring

7. Winding
8. Rolling
9. Products



THREE MARKET GRADES OF LAMBS

Wool buyers do not trust appearances, they handle animals to discover their qualities. In the illustrations, A and B represent choice lambs, woolled and after shearing. C and D are examples of medium lambs, woolled and shorn. E and F exhibit the lowest grade, cull lambs, before and after shearing.

WOONSOCKET, R. I., in Providence County, 15 miles northwest of Providence, on the Blackstone River, and on the New York, New Haven & Hartford Railroad. There are several bus and electric lines, also a landing field and an airport. The principal manufactures are woolens, worsteds, cotton and rayon goods, knit goods, rubber rolls and thread, machinery, automobile accessories, awnings, brushes, sheet metal products and cigars. Important institutions and buildings are Mount St Charles Academy, Harris Institute Library with 55,000 volumes, two hospitals and 23 churches, and the national home of L'Union St. Jean Baptiste. A magnificent bridge crosses the river. There are four parks covering 109 acres. The city was incorporated in 1888, it was formed by the consolidation of several factory villages (but the original Woonsocket was not included). Population, 1930, 49,376.

WORCESTER, woos'ter, MASS., the second city in size in the state, one of the county seats of Worcester County, 44 miles west of Boston on the New York Central, the Boston & Maine and the New York, New Haven & Hartford railroads. It has one landing field. It is one of the most important manufacturing centers in New England and has the largest wire factory in the world.

The city is noted for its large number of excellent buildings, chief among which are a city hall, a municipal memorial auditorium, a courthouse, a public library, with four branch Carnegie libraries, a Federal building, the Bancroft Hotel, the art museum, the state armory, a state asylum for the insane and the buildings of the women's club, the American Antiquarian Society, the Worcester Society of Antiquity and the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian associations. The educational institutions include Clark University, Clark College, College of the Holy Cross (Roman Catholic), the Worcester Polytechnic Institute, Assumption College (French Catholic), the Worcester Academy for boys, and a state teachers' college.

There are a number of pleasant summer resorts in the vicinity, including Lake Quinsigamond and Mount Wachusett.

Worcester was first settled in 1673, but was abandoned on the outbreak of King Philip's War, two years later. A second attempt in 1694 was also given up because of Indian depredations, and the first permanent settlement was not made until 1713. In

1722 Worcester was incorporated as a town, and in 1843 was chartered as a city. Worcester is the birthplace of the historian George Bancroft, who was also Secretary of the Navy. Population, 1930, 185,311.

WORDEN, JOHN LOZANUS (1818-1897), an American naval officer, born in Westchester County, N. Y. He entered the navy in 1835 and became a Lieutenant eleven years later. In March, 1862, he was in command of the Monitor during the famous battle with the Merrimac, in Hampton Roads. In this engagement his eyesight was seriously impaired by the explosion of a shell. He was able to take subsequent commands, however, and served with gallantry until the close of the war. In 1870 he became head of the Amaphoe Naval Academy and was made rear-admiral in 1872. He retired in 1886.

WORDSWORTH, wordsw'orth, WILLIAM (1770-1850), an English poet, a leader in the Romantic movement which transformed English poetry early in the nineteenth century. He was born at Cockermouth, Cumberland. While at a grammar school at Hawkshead, he spent much time in solitary rambles, and the love of nature manifest at this time grew throughout his life and was his most prominent character.



WILLIAM WORDSWORTH

He was graduated from Cambridge in 1791, and later in the same year he went to France. At first he felt the most ardent sympathy with the Revolution, but the excesses which developed out of it shocked him greatly, and as time went on he settled down to a staid conservatism. Many of his contemporaries, ardent republicans like Byron and Shelley, condemned him severely for the change. Shortly after his return from France, Wordsworth published his first poems, *An Evening Walk and Descriptive Sketches taken during a Pederictic Tour among the Alps*, which, although they were written somewhat after the manner of Pope, yet contained signs of the new poet's peculiar genius.

In 1795, Wordsworth, with his sister Dorothy, settled at Racedown in Dorset, where they were visited by Coleridge, who

induced them to remove to Alforden, in the immediate neighborhood of his own residence at Nether Stowey. Here the two poets held daily intercourse, and after a twelve-month they published *Lyrical Ballads*, in literary copartnership. This volume contained an Coleridge's contribution, *The Ancient Mariner*, and as Wordsworth's, among others, *We are Seven* and *Lyrical Ballads*. Although the poems were received with almost complete public indifference, yet Wordsworth felt that he had found his mission, and after a winter spent in Germany, he and his sister settled at Grasmere, one of the most beautiful places in England, where he gave himself up to literary work. Thenceforth his life was marked by few incidents. Those worth noting are his marriage, in 1802, with Mary Hutchinson; his appointment, in 1813, to an inspectorship of stamps, and his removal to Rydal Mount; several journeys into Scotland and to the continent, his acceptance of a D. C. L. degree, conferred upon him in 1839 by the university of Oxford, and his accession, in 1843, to the laureateship, on the death of Southey.

The public and the critics were slow to recognise Wordsworth's ability, refusing utterly to accept his idea that poetry may deal with simple and natural subjects, presented in simple and natural language. Coleridge, Lamb, De Quincey, Southey, Keats and others were always his admirers, however, and his faith in his own mission was too strong to be shaken. His great philosophic poem, which, in his own phrase, was to be the Gothic cathedral of his labor, received only a fragmentary accomplishment in *The Prelude*, *The Excursion* and *The Recluse*. Yet enough was achieved in his smaller poems to justify his own conception of himself as a "dedicated spirit," and to set him apart among the greatest of England's poets. His intense sympathy with nature and his firm belief in the brotherhood of man find expression in all of his poems; and his language, although always simple, sometimes rises far above what he insisted it should be, the unadorned language of prose. Among the most beautiful of Wordsworth's poems are the *Ode on the Intimations of Immortality*, *Ode to Duty*, *The Solitary Reaper*, *To a Highland Girl*, *I Wandered Lonely as a Cloud* and *Yarrow Revisited*. His sonnets are among the finest ever produced by any English poet in any age.

WORK, a general term for effort expended toward a given end, but it also implies motion against a resisting force, that certain results may be obtained. A man who lifts a weight, in labor or in play, performs work; the resisting force he encounters is the force of gravitation. The impulse which sends the electric current along a copper wire to light a room or run a motor performs work. The water which in falling wears away solid rock performs work just as surely as does that which falls over a water-wheel and turns the machinery of a mill. Work is accomplished whenever one body transfers its energy to another body.

WORKHOUSE, a name widely applied to institutions for the maintenance of paupers. In the United States those establishments where vagrants, drunkards and other such offenders are detained are sometimes called workhouses, but more properly they are called houses of correction. In an earlier day it was quite usual to supply religious and secular instruction to inmates, but the religious aspect has of late years been neglected. However, the inmates are taught to labor and acquire knowledge of trades and occupations, and learn habits of cleanliness, industry, and order, the work assigned according to capacity and ability.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION LAWS. See EMPLOYER'S LIABILITY.

WORLD'S COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION, an international exposition of arts and industries, in commemoration of the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America by Columbus. It was built in Jackson Park, Chicago, on the shore of Lake Michigan, and was open from May 1 till November 1, 1893. The construction of the exposition occupied two years, besides the time consumed in preparatory work, such as study, investigation and advertising. The exposition was formally opened May 1, 1893, Grover Cleveland, then president of the United States, setting the intricate machinery in motion by pressing a button connected with electrical appliances. His opening address was listened to by an assemblage estimated at fully 400,000 people. The exhibition comprised over 400 buildings, covering fully 200 acres of ground. Fifteen of these buildings were occupied by special classes of exhibits, of individuals, firms, states and nations, every important nation on the globe being represented in some one or more de-

WORLD'S EXPOSITION

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partments. The largest building was the Manufactures and Liberal Arts Building, 787 by 1,887 feet in size, covering nearly forty acres, including the surrounding colonnade, and costing \$1,500,000. Its enormous roof was supported by the largest steel arches ever used in building construction. Besides the buildings used for the exposition proper, nearly every state in the Union and many foreign nations erected buildings for social and exhibition purposes.

The architectural beauty of the whole exposition was one of its greatest triumphs, and, indeed, it has rarely, if ever, been excelled. The center of the main group of buildings was the Court of Honor, consisting of a wide plaza, with a lagoon in its center, having at one end a beautiful electric fountain, sculptured by McMinn, and terminated at the other by a graceful semi-circular portico.

The whole cost of the exposition to its managers before the opening was more than \$15,000,000, the cost of operation exceeded \$7,000,000, while the expenditures by states and foreign nations were not less than \$5,000,000. Adding to this enormous sum the expenses incurred by private exhibitors, the total cost of the exposition was probably \$40,000,000. The attendance from the opening to the closing day was 27,580,041, or slightly less than the attendance at the Paris Exposition of 1889. The largest attendance upon any one day was on Chicago Day, October 9, when 716,881 people passed through its gates. One of the most novel and interesting features of the exposition was the Midway Plaisance, a boulevard 600 feet wide, connecting Jackson and Washington Parks. Along the sides of this avenue was arranged a motley collection of amusement enterprises, the most interesting consisting of representative scenes from the life of various peoples of Europe, Africa and the Orient.

An interesting and important feature of this fair was the World's Congress Auxiliary, consisting of special congresses on all the main topics of human interest, social, physical, industrial, educational, philosophical, commercial and religious. The congresses of religion presented features of peculiar interest, being attended by leading representatives of the religions of Asia and Africa as well as those of Europe and America.

WORLD COURT. See PERMANENT COURT OF INTERNATIONAL JUSTICE.

WORLD WAR

WORLD WAR (1914-1918). The greatest war in human history, and the only one that drew into its vortex nations of every continent. It is sometimes called the Great War and the War of the Nations, but no name has been found or can be suggested which can fittingly describe its magnitude.

In respect to number of men engaged and casualties, amount of money lavished, human effort expended, number of nations involved and changes in political and social structure resulting from it, the World War has no parallel among the conflicts which men have been fighting from the dawn of history. While it loosed all the hatred and brutality inherent in human nature, bringing out primitive passions and racial antipathies in all their rawness, this war also served as a background for nobility and courage almost divine, and it illuminated with startling clearness some of those fundamental conceptions of freedom and justice upon which the future security of humanity rests.

Causes of the War. These causes were rooted deep in past conditions of society, government, and economic and political relations. No one would say that any particular event was in itself responsible for the World War. It was, indeed, like the breaking out of a sore on the surface of a world that for centuries had been harboring the germs of hideous diseases. It does not follow, however, that all nations engaged in the conflict were equally blameworthy. No discussion of the causes of the war can ignore the ambitious plans of the German imperialists, to whom the declaration of war was an opportunity to carry out certain well-defined aims for German domination of the world.

The General Situation in 1914. A general European war had been foreseen and prophesied by many observers long before the actual onset. Prophesies of this nature were based on certain conditions in Europe which held dangerous possibilities and may



be regarded as underlying causes of the war. Outstanding elements in the situation were racial antagonisms and the development of nationalism. In 1871 Germany forced on France a peace which violated the principle of national unity when Alsace-Lorraine was forcibly annexed to the empire. The French, a proud, high-spirited people, never forgave or forgot this humiliation, and the two neighboring nations were friends only on the surface.

In Austria-Hungary the racial problem was acute. That monarchy was a loose union of many diverse peoples, possessing no bond of loyalty or of common interest. Among these were the Bohemians, or Czechs, mindful of their lost independence, and determined to maintain their national consciousness, and the Southern Slavs, in Bosnia, Croatia and other sections, with visions of the establishment of an independent Slavic state. The Pan-Slavic agitation was becoming more and more a source of anxiety to the Austrian government, and the situation was complicated by the known sympathy of Russia, the greatest of the Slav nations, for the aspirations of the Slavic people both in Austria-Hungary and in the Balkans.

The Balkan states themselves presented a baffling problem. Here the mixture of races was so complicated that an accurate geographic arrangement of peoples, in conformance with the principle of national unity, was a hopeless task. The Balkan wars of 1912-1913 had nearly forced Turkey out of Europe and had left Serbia, Montenegro, Romania and Greece with increased territory and augmented national consciousness. Romanians, Serbians and Greeks all had their dreams of bringing under their respective flags neighboring territories peopled by their own kinsmen. Bulgaria, on the other hand, smarting from its recent defeat, was nursing a sense of injustice and hoping for a day of revenge.

Added to this conflict of aims and hopes was the antagonism between Slav and Teuton. The defeat of Turkey in 1912-1913 was a blow to both Germany and Austria-Hungary, for it increased the prestige of the Slavs, and made more real the menace to the integrity of Austria-Hungary. Germany was no less interested in preserving the Hapsburg monarchy than was the Austro-Hungarian government itself, for a disrupted monarchy meant a check to Germany's plan to dominate

the Balkans and to secure a gateway to the East. It meant also the collapse of Emperor William's *Mittel Europa* (Middle Europe) scheme.

In discussions of the background of the war much has been said of Pan-Germanism, which was the spirit of national consciousness carried to the extreme limit. The Pan-Germans, who included not only militarists, but historians, scientists, educators and statesmen, conceived the German people, no matter where they were located, as permanently retaining their nationality. The most ambitious of this group believed that it was the mission of Germans to extend their *Luther* (culture) over the world, and to accomplish this by conquest, if necessary. In this connection the theory was advanced that the German was a superior being, destined to dominate other peoples, most of whom were thought of as decadent. While many German authorities denied that the Pan-German doctrine represented official Germany, or a majority of the people, the extensive propaganda of its adherents certainly affected the German nation, and the speeches and acts of the emperor clearly pointed to his sympathy with the theory.

Military preparedness was a necessary corollary of these national ambitions and racial jealousies. Standing armies, huge appropriations for armaments, highly-developed munition factories and the other accessories of war turned Europe into an armed camp; with symbols of war on every hand pacifism waged a losing fight with militarism. Germany's preparations for a possible war were more complete than those of any other nation, partly because of the splendid industrial organization of the empire, and partly because of the spirit of the German people themselves. Bismarck, who had launched the empire on its career by a policy of "blood and iron," was the great national hero, and the necessity of militarism was believed in by the people as a whole. They accepted burdensome taxes as essential to the welfare of the Fatherland.

In 1913 a new army bill in Germany caused a frenzied increase in war preparations in Europe generally, which did not add to the possibilities of peace. Another factor in the situation was the building up of a great German navy by Emperor William, a procedure that England viewed with concern. As a result, the two nations engaged in a

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race in naval armaments, with England in the lead, and Germany following with the second largest navy in the world. Germany's growth in naval strength was a contributing cause to the formation of the Triple Entente by England, Russia and France, one of those military alliances that were another development of national rivalries. In 1882 Italy had joined with Germany and Austria in the Triple Alliance, fearing this strong combination. France and Russia, fearing England, which was disturbed by Germany's naval policy. It may readily be seen how delicately-balanced was a peace condition with the great powers thus ranged against each other. In fact, between 1895 and 1914 there were several crises, each of which almost brought on war.

Economic rivalry also had a part in setting nation against nation. The colonial expansion of the other nations, notably Great Britain, and the advantages resulting therefrom spurred Germany on to securing its place as a great colonial power, and thus brought about the inevitable clash of interests in the colonized and undeveloped parts of the world. In England, Germany's naval program was looked upon chiefly as a plan to overthrow British commercial supremacy. In such manner was the stage set for the great drama of 1914-1918.

Outbreak of the War. On June 28, 1914, the heir apparent to the Austrian throne, Archduke Francis Ferdinand, and his wife, were assassinated while on a visit to Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia. The assassin, a young Bosnian named Gavrilo Princip, was one of the principals in a scheme to incorporate Bosnia in a Greater Serbia. Bosnia, including Herzegovina, was peopled by Serbs who had never become reconciled to the annexation of the province by Austria-Hungary in 1908. Francis Ferdinand was selected as a victim because he was friendly to the idea of placing the Slavs of the Hapsburg monarchy on an equal footing with Germans and Magyars (Hungarians), and the Serbian plotters believed that such a plan would impel their own scheme.

The affair took on an international aspect because the Austrian government believed that the crime was plotted in Belgrade, the capital of Serbia, by the Serbian government itself. The erection of such a state as Greater

Serbia would disrupt the monarchy by paving the way to other Slavic secessions. Accordingly, the Austrian government decided to crush the Serbian movement once for all, and to do so by dealing directly with Belgrade.

On July 23 a stern ultimatum was sent to the Serbian government; ten demands being submitted, and forty-eight hours being given for a reply. These demands required that Serbia should dissolve all societies engaged in Pan-Serbian propaganda, dismiss all teachers or government officials hostile to Austria, suppress publications advancing the movement, take measures to stop the smuggling of arms across the border, permit Austro-Hungarian agents to assist in the suppression of the movement, and Austro-Hungarian representatives to take part in the investigation and punishment of persons accused of complicity in the crime. Serbia's reply to these demands was conciliatory, but Austria seems to have made them purposely unacceptable. The demands that Austrian agents be permitted to help suppress the anti-Austrian movement and that Austrian representatives assist in the judicial proceedings against the plotters were protested against as infringing on the sovereignty of Serbia. Moreover, the smaller state expressed its willingness to submit the disputed questions to The Hague Tribunal or to the decision of The great powers. Austria professed to find the answer unsatisfactory, and on July 28 issued a declaration of war.

The Flame Spreads. The great powers were keenly interested in the outcome of the Austro-Serbian controversy. Germany, having a vital interest in the integrity of the Hapsburg monarchy, supported Austria's attitude and was suspected in a meeting at Potsdam in July, presided over by Emperor William, of having urged its ally to precipitate a crisis. Russia was as vitally interested in preserving the balance of power in the Balkans and of saving Serbia from a state of vassalage. Here again came to the surface the old animosity between Teuton and Slav, with the German alliance eager to extend its "big brother" to the small Slavic states. France, as an ally of Russia, naturally sided against the Teutonic states, but Italy, the third member of the Triple Alliance, held aloof from its allies because they were not entering a war of defense.

The diplomatic wires grew hot during the tense week following July 23. On the 28th Russia openly announced its intention of mobilizing its army against Austria if troops crossed the Serbian border, and on the 29th partial mobilization was ordered. On the same day Sir Edward Grey, the British Foreign Secretary, who had previously made unsuccessful efforts to arrange a conference of the powers to settle the dispute, urged the German government to suggest a method of preventing war between Russia and Austria. No satisfactory basis of agreement could be reached, however, and on the 31st Germany sent an ultimatum to Russia, demanding that Russia cease mobilizing within twelve hours. As the Russian government declared that it was impossible to stop the process, Germany on August 1 declared a state of war against Russia and at the same time requested a statement from France as to its intentions in the event of a war between Germany and Russia. The reply being unsatisfactory, Germany declared a state of war against France on August 3.

Germany, in the meantime, had been hoping that Great Britain, though in agreement with Russia and France, would remain neutral, and had informed the British government that the territorial unity of France would be preserved if Great Britain kept out. It was further stated that no guarantee would be made regarding French colonies. Great Britain refused to promise its neutrality, and to the last moment labored for a compromise. On August 2, however, France was notified by England that its northern coast would be protected from attack by the German fleet. Thus partial intervention was followed on August 4 by a declaration of war against Germany by Great Britain because of the violation of Belgium's neutrality.

In 1839 the great powers, including Prussia, had entered into a treaty guaranteeing the independence and neutrality of Belgium, and in 1870, when France and Germany were at war, a separate treaty was signed between Great Britain and each of the belligerents, by which Great Britain agreed that if either nation should violate Belgian neutrality the other could rely on England as an ally.

On July 31, 1914, the governments of Germany and France were requested by Great Britain to state their attitude on the question of Belgian neutrality. France replied that in

case of war such neutrality would be respected. Germany's reply was evasive, and on August 2 the German Foreign Minister presented to the Belgian Minister an ultimatum demanding that the German forces be permitted to pass through the country (the easiest way to France). In case of refusal Germany warned Belgium it would be treated as an enemy. To its undying honor Belgium declined thus to lend itself to the subjugation of France, and refused the demand, at the same time appealing to Great Britain, France and Russia to carry out the terms of the treaty of 1839.

On August 4 Great Britain sent an ultimatum to Germany demanding a favorable reply to its request that Belgium be unviolated, giving the German government until midnight to reply. As no reply was received, England entered the war on midnight, August 4, and thus on August 5, Germany and Austria found themselves surrounded by enemies. Italy, their ally, had declared on August 1 that it would remain neutral. Montenegro elected to go to the defense of Serbia within a few days, and Japan, Britain's ally in the Far East, entered the struggle on August 23. Turkey within a few weeks became an ally of the Teutonic powers.

The list of war declarations for 1914 is as follows:

Austria-Hungary, on Serbia	July 22
Germany, on Russia	Aug 1
Germany, on France	Aug 3
Germany, on Belgium	Aug 4
Great Britain, on Germany	Aug 4
France, on Germany	Aug 4
Austria-Hungary, on Russia	Aug 6
Montenegro, on Austria-Hungary	Aug 7
Montenegro, on Germany	Aug 9
Serbia, on Germany	Aug 9
France, on Austria-Hungary	Aug 10
Great Britain, on Austria-Hungary	Aug 12
Japan, on Germany	Aug 22
Austria-Hungary, on Japan	Aug 27
Austria-Hungary, on Belgium	Aug 28
Russia, on Turkey	Nov 3
France, on Turkey	Nov 5
Great Britain, on Turkey	Nov 5

German Drives in the West Germany was superbly prepared for war, and its mighty military machine lost no time in getting into action. The military operations at once resolved themselves into two great campaigns, for Germany had to meet enemies on its widely separated eastern and western frontiers. Immediately after the war broke out the German strategy became clear. A quick, de-

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curve dash into France was to be followed by the shifting of most of the victorious troops from the west to meet the Russian influx on the east. This plan failed only by the narrowest of margins, partly because the Belgian resistance delayed the advances and gave the French time to organize, and partly because the Russians mobilized more rapidly than



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had been expected. When the campaign in France was at a crisis, therefore, the Germans were compelled to weaken their offensive by sending thousands of soldiers to defend their eastern frontier against strong forces of the czar.

In Belgium the western campaign developed with great rapidity. The Germans appeared before Lige on August 5, and took the city on the 8th. Before the end of August they had taken practically all of Belgium except Antwerp and a narrow strip on the coast. The Belgian army was driven into Antwerp, but early in October was driven out again, after a ten-days' bombardment. A part of the Belgian army succeeded in making its escape along the coast and joined the French forces south of Ostend, but about 20,000 took refuge in Holland and laid down their arms. The success of the Germans in pounding their way into Antwerp and other strongly fortified towns was chiefly due to the superiority of their artillery, particularly the 42-centimeter Krupp siege guns.

On the Marne and the Aisne During the last week in August and the first week in September there took place one of the most remarkable military movements in all history. The German army, of probably 1,000,000 men, advanced in a wide sweep across France almost to the gates of Paris before its advance was checked. In two weeks the main German army advanced over 150 miles. Opposing them was a large force of French soldiers under General Joffre, and a constantly increasing number of British soldiers under General Sir John French. After the fall of Antwerp the extreme left of the allied line was held by Belgian troops led by King Albert in person. While the Germans were encamped in Belgium, the main French armies had made unsuccessful attacks on Alsace and Lorraine, chiefly for sentimental reasons. It was the German plan, therefore, to reach Paris before the French line in the north could be adequately strengthened. This plan, however, miscarried. On September 2 the seat of the French government was moved to Bordeaux, and Paris prepared for a siege. The German right under Von Kluck, however, swept to the east of Paris, thus exposing its flank to the attack of the strong Paris garrison. For five days, September 6th to 10th, the Germans held their positions along the Marne River. Here was fought the greatest battle of the war up to that time and one of the greatest battles of all history. The Marne marked the high tide of German invasion.

By the 12th of September the whole German army was in retreat along the line over which it had advanced. The retreat, however, was masterly, and in spite of the retreat, however, and increasing number of the allied forces, they were unable to turn the defeat into a rout. On the hills along the River Aisne the German retreat came to a halt. Here they prepared for them positions so strong that the allies could not drive them out by direct attack. The allied right, too, found it impossible to turn the German left, and there remained only the possibility of turning the extreme German right. This attempt was first made about September 15, but was repulsed after the allies had penetrated as far as Saint Quentin. The next flanking movement came in the neighbourhood of Cambrai, and the third near Arras, these failed in turn. The German line was now vastly extended

from its original position, and as the allies

moved northward the Germans kept pace. At the end of September the German attack on Antwerp began, and the flanking movement of the allies became in fact an attempt to save this fortress and the Belgian army. But the allies were too late.

After the capture of Antwerp (October 10), the Germans, by taking Ostend, placed them right flank on the sea coast. Two days later the allied forces reached Dunkirk, thus ending the possibility of flanking movements by either side. The battle-front now extended from the English Channel to Switzerland.

The Battle of Flanders In October the German army attempted to advance along the coast to Calais, presumably with the object of establishing a base for an invasion of England. For five weeks the battle raged along the canals and the River Yser. No other conflicts during the war were so bloody. In the region of Newport, Dixmude and Ypres, the battle raged incessantly, but to no purpose. In spite of enormous masses hurled forward by the Germans, the allied lines held firmly. At the end of five weeks the battle-line was practically unchanged.

Deadlock in the West From October, 1914, to August, 1915, the battle-front, as shown in the accompanying map, was little changed. There were occasional brilliant successes, but only of local importance. In the neighborhood of Soissons the Germans made a considerable gain, and at the northern end the allies made several gains which straightened the line. In Alsace the French advanced about 10 miles, but they were unable to drive the Germans out of Saint Mihiel. On the whole, the entire line, over 400 miles long, settled down to a condition of siege unprecedented in history. After October the center of interest was transferred to the eastern frontier.

The Eastern Campaign In the east Poland became the great battlefield, for the chief objective of the Russians was the conquest of Galicia, or Austrian Poland, while the Germans sought the conquest of Russian Poland. During the first month of war the Russians mobilized with unexpected rapidity, advanced in force through East Prussia, and for a few days threatened serious consequences. On September 1 the terrible rout at Tannenberg ended the danger from this source, and made Von Hindenburg one of the great figures of the war. Gradually the Russians were forced back to the Niemen, where

they took a new bold and later carried their line back to the German frontier. Here a deadlock arose like that in the west.

Meanwhile, in Galicia, Russia was winning tremendous success. Tarnopol and Lemberg fell, Przemysl was besieged, and by October 1 the Austrians were driven back to within 50 miles of Cracow. At this point the Germans launched a strong offensive movement against the Russian center, which was driven back over 100 miles to the permanent defenses of Ivangorod and Novo Georgievsk. This retreat of the center compelled the Russians to retreat in Galicia, but the relief to the Austrians was only temporary. The German advance was only seven miles from Warsaw when the Russians, by a threatened flanking movement, compelled a retreat to the German border. Once again, in December, January



and February, the Germans slowly advanced on Warsaw, but were unable to take it. In East Prussia the Russians advanced in force in February, but after the ten-days' battle

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of the Masurian Lakes they were compelled to retire. In Galicia the Russians made themselves masters, finally took Przemysl on March 22, 1915, seized all the passes of the Carpathian Mountains, and were ready to advance in force across the plains of Hungary.

New German Offensive. Just as an invasion of Hungary seemed certain a combined German and Austrian army led by Von Mackensen routed the Russians and drove them out of Galicia, forcing them back to the position they held at the beginning of the war. By the first of August the Germans were again at the gates of Warsaw and on the 4th the city was taken. By this campaign the central powers regained the lost territory and rendered a new Russian offensive impossible for several months.

Turkey in the War. On October 29, 1914, two German warships that had been sold to Turkey, but were still operated by German officers and crews, bombarded by German other ports on the Black Sea. Turkey's explanation of this act was unsatisfactory and on November 3 Russia declared war on the Ottoman Empire. Great Britain and France took like action on November 5. The Turks made unsuccessful attempts to invade Egypt and Russian Caucasus. On February 15, 1915, a fleet of the allies attempted to take Constantinople. A large army was landed on Gallipoli Peninsula to assist the fleet. The enterprise failed, and six months later it was known that the Turks were withdrawn at the end of six months, though it was later known that the Turks were out of ammunition and were ready to capitulate when the allies withdrew. The German emperor looked upon Turkey's entrance into the war as a blow to the integrity of the British Empire and the French colonial empire, as he expected the Mohammedans in those empires to start a Holy War. In this he was completely disappointed.

The War in Asia. Japan, as has been mentioned, entered the war as the protector of allied interests in the Far East. On August 18, 1914, an ultimatum was sent to the German Foreign Office requesting Germany to surrender the leased territory of Kiaochow to China, which the German government had acquired in 1897. Upon refusal of Germany to comply, Japan declared war on August 23, and shortly afterwards began a siege of the port of Tungtien. On November 10 all of the household was surrendered.

With German power in East Asia thus overthrown, the British could give their attention to an offensive against the Turks in Mesopotamia, in order to destroy the German threat to Egypt and the Suez Canal, and to pave the way for an advance into Asia Minor, the heart of the Turkish Empire. Early in the war it was apparent to the entire allies that a blow should be struck at German pretensions in Asia Minor. The Mittel Europa scheme of Germany had for its object the control of Europe by which Berlin could control the entrance into Asia through Turkey. In Asia Minor the Germans had some success which justified the hope of ultimate control of a strip of territory to the Persian Gulf. Their railroad already extended to Iskenderun. If a direct route from Berlin through to the seas south of Asia were established, Great Britain could one day be attacked in India and North Africa, in pursuance of the German dream of world domination.

In November, 1914, the British routed the Turkish garrison at Basra, sixty miles north of the Persian Gulf, and then advanced to Kurna, at the confluence of the Tigris and Euphrates rivers. Moving steadily northward through the spring and summer of 1915, the victorious troops defeated the enemy before Kut-el-Amara, on the Tigris, on September 22, and by November had reached a point eighteen miles from Bagdad. Here a point army, which was commanded by Major-General Townshend, was defeated by a greatly superior force and driven back to Kut-el-Amara. In Persia and Turkish Armenia the Russians won several victories over the Turks in 1915, and it was hoped that at the end of the year they might be able to raise the siege of Kut-el-Amara.

German Colonies. Most of Germany's colonial empire was lost early in the war. On August 29, 1914, German Samoa surrendered to an expeditionary force from New Zealand, and on September 11 Australian troops captured the capital of the Bismarck and Solomon Islands. German New Guinea was occupied two weeks later. The Japanese, by the end of October, had taken possession of the Marshall, Mariana and Caroline Islands. In Africa, Anglo-French forces captured Togoland in August, 1914, and during December of that year it was announced that

a force had been raised in South Africa to carry out the conquest of German East Africa. This was speedily accomplished.

Campaign in the Balkans. Serbia, with the aid of a small army of hardy Montenegrins, was able to offer a stiff resistance to invading Austrians, who were driven out of Belgrade in December, 1914, with heavy losses. Austrian defeat was due in part to the Russian invasion of Galicia, which forced Austria to withdraw large numbers of its troops to that theater of war. The good fortune of the Serbs was short-lived, however. The campaign left the country impoverished and exhausted, and ill prepared to cope with a new enemy on its eastern border.

In October, 1915, after months of deliberation, the Bulgars decided to throw in their lot with the Teutonic powers, as Germany and Austria were able to promise them a better territorial settlement than the entente was disposed to offer. In October a Bulgarian army joined the Austro-German forces under Field Marshal von Mackensen, and early in December Serbia was crushed. King Peter and his officials fled, and the Serbian government was set up in Corfu. Albania and Montenegro were brought under control of the Central powers early in 1916, and were held by them until November, 1918.

Situation in Greece. The king and queen of Greece, the latter a sister of the kaiser, maintained a pro-German attitude in the war, while the majority in Parliament, under the leadership of Premier Venizelos, wished to join the entente. Greece was bound by treaty to go to the assistance of Serbia in case the latter were attacked, but King Constantine interpreted this treaty to refer to a Balkan, not a general European, conflict. Accordingly, Greece remained neutral for the time being. In December, 1915, however, after being defeated by the Bulgars on the Vardar River, the allies occupied the city of Saloniki, and made it impregnable, as they interpreted the position of Greece as one of "benign neutrality." Venizelos and the allied sympathizers approved of this attitude; the king and his followers protested against the "violation of Greek neutrality."

War Declarations of 1915. The entrance of Italy into the war, as an ally of the entente powers, in May, 1915, was the greatest diplomatic triumph of the year for Great Britain, France and Russia. The war declarations of the year are as follows:

Italy, on Austria-Hungary	May 23
San Marino, on Austria-Hungary	June 2
Bulgaria, on Serbia	Oct 13
Great Britain, on Bulgaria	'Oct 15
France, on Bulgaria	Oct 16
Russia, on Bulgaria	Oct 18
Italy, on Bulgaria	Oct 19

Italy in the War. Italy had helped save France early in the war by announcing its neutrality. Spared the necessity of guarding the Franco-Italian frontier, the French had been able to concentrate enough forces on the Marne to check the Germans in September, 1914. Germany and Austria, however, spared no pains to conciliate Italy, and entered into lengthy negotiations with Rome to keep the Italians from joining the allies. In this they were unsuccessful, and Italy declared war on Austria on May 23, 1915. There were three forces back of this decision: traditional hostility toward Austria; a popular "irredentist" movement, aiming at the liberation of those Austrian districts inhabited by Italians; a sentiment against Austro-German imperialism and militarism, which was threatening civilization and democracy. The Italians were able to put a finely-trained army into the field at once, which began an invasion of Austria and gained some initial successes. Trent and Triest were the objective points. By the end of 1915 Italian troops had made a good beginning, but were still far from their goal.

Events of 1916. The entente gained two new allies in 1916, Portugal and Rumania. During the year there were major offensives by the Russians, Anglo-French forces and Italians, a successful defense at Verdun, a great battle between the German and English fleets off Jutland, and an extension of German submarine warfare. Other events are noted below.

The New Belligerents. War declarations of 1916 were as follows:

Germany, on Portugal ...	Mar 8
Austria-Hungary, on Portugal	Mar 15
Italy, on Germany	Aug 27
Rumania, on Austria	Aug 27
Germany, on Rumania	Aug 28

Portugal, whose treaty with Great Britain bound it to furnish its ally with 10,000 troops when they were needed, was not asked to take any decisive action until February, 1916, when Sir Edward Grey requested the Portuguese government to take over all German and Austrian merchant vessels interned in Portuguese waters. On Portugal's compliance with

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the request the two central powers declared war against Portugal in March. Forty merchant ships were acquired by the entente through this move. Later Portuguese troops engaged in severe fighting on the western front. Rumania declared war on Austria in August, 1916, in the hope of liberating from Austrian rule the provinces of Bukowina and Transylvania, inhabited by large numbers of Romanians.

The Struggle for Verdun. One of the most desperate campaigns of the war began on February 21, 1916, when a German army under the command of Crown Prince Frederick William began an attack on the fortifications of Verdun, a strongly-fortified city commanding the heights of the Meuse. The Germans hoped by a spectacular victory at this point to discourage the French, quiet political discontent at home, and relieve the French threat at the rich iron mines northeast of Verdun and in German Lorraine. If the French held on the Meuse heights could be conquered, their army could never be able to conquer Alsace-Lorraine, and the morale of the soldiers would suffer a severe blow. The great drive curried the German troops through the outlying defenses of the fortress, but after months of desperate fighting the French, commanded by General Pétain, were still holding the heart of the salient, and all resolve, indomitable France was ringing with the battle cry of the soldiers, "They shall not pass!"

From February to July the Germans gained 130 square miles of territory, including two battered forts and about forty ruined villages. Then for several weeks there was a lull in the fighting, while the French were making preparations for a counterstroke. It came in October, when General Nivelle, who had superseded Pétain, began an offensive on the east bank of the Meuse, north of the town. In the first assault Douaumont village and fort, Thiaumont farm and redoubt and Haudumont quarries were recaptured. Other successes followed, and in December a renewal of the offensive brought about the recapture of several other strategic points. Though it took another year of fighting to bring the French lines near to their original position, the failure of the German counter-attack made the battle an allied victory at the end of 1916. Losses on both sides were heavy, with the Germans suffering the more severely.

Battles of the Somme. A military conference of the allies was held in Paris in March, 1916, at which a plan for concerted action was perfected. Hitherto disengaged attacks on the various fronts had given the central powers the advantage because the excellent railway system of Germany enabled large bodies of troops to be moved quickly from one front to another as they were needed. A large British army under the command of Sir Douglas Haig was mobilized in France along the Somme, while the German Crown Prince was carrying on his campaign against Verdun.

In the last days of June the British, French and Belgians began a systematic bombardment of the German defenses that extended from Verdun all the way to the North Sea. This bombardment was especially violent along the section north and south of the Somme, where the British were opposite the German lines. The heavy artillery of the British and French demolished the works of the enemy in this section, and on July 1 the forward movement began. The allies captured all the German first line trenches over a front of twenty-five miles. Within fifteen days fifteen villages and about 25,000 prisoners were taken.

After the first impetus of the drive had spent itself there was a period of quiet with both sides preparing for the next phase of the battle. On September 3 the Anglo-French forces struck again, the British at this time making use of a new war device, the armored tank. When the battle died down, in November, the allies had recaptured about 120 square miles of territory. The Germans are estimated to have lost 700,000 men killed, wounded and prisoners, the allies, 675,000. General Haig asserted the battle was an allied victory because it had relieved the pressure on Verdun, kept the Germans from withdrawing forces to the east against Russia (see below) and served to diminish the German manpower.

The Second Russian Offensive. Russia devoted its energy during the first months of 1916 to increasing and training its armies, and supplying them with arms and ammunition. There were several engagements on the southern part of the line held by the Russians before June, and on the third of that month the Russian forces under General Brusilov began an extensive forward movement which swept the country from the

Pripet River on the north to Rumania on the south. The crownland of Bukowina was occupied, Lemberg, in Galicia, was threatened, and the advance column of the invaders reached the Carpathian Mountains. Several important towns fell into the hands of the Russians, and they took a large number of prisoners. The drive had spent itself by August, but it helped the French, British and Italians by keeping the Central Powers busy on both the east and the west fronts. Russia lost hundreds and thousands of its best troops in the fighting of 1914-1916, and was being menaced from within by corrupt officials and traitors. The sequel to this was the betrayal of Rumania, which entered the war on August 27 (see below).

Italian Reverses and Victories. In May the Austrians began an offensive against Italy for the purpose of disrupting allied plans for a summer campaign, and in the hope of putting the Italians out of the war by a conquest of Northern Italy. After a month of strenuous fighting the Austrians recovered 270 square miles of their own territory and conquered 230 square miles of Italian soil. The Italians lost heavily in men and material, but they offered strong resistance and definitely checked the offensive, besides inflicting heavy losses on the enemy. Russia's attack on Galicia and Bukowina, which forced Austria to withdraw troops from the Italian front, was a great factor in saving Italy from further invasion.

Two weeks after Russia launched the Austrian campaign, General Cadorna, commander of the Italians, began a vigorous counter-offensive with a new army of 500,000 men. During the last week of June the Austrians began to retreat on the Trentino front, where the Italian offensive proceeded vigorously throughout July. On August 4, five weeks after the Anglo-French attack on the Somme, Cadorna opened a vigorous attack along the Isonzo front, with the city of Gorizia as the objective point. This place was protected by hills and mountains bristling with guns, but the Italians carried everything before them in their impetuous onslaught, and on August 9 triumphantly entered the city with King Victor Emmanuel at their head. The tide of battle then turned southward to the Carso plateau, which lay a strong barrier between the Italian army and the coveted city of Triest. Here progress was made only at the expenditure of well-nigh superhuman efforts.

The Tragedy of Rumania. The Rumanians began an invasion of Transylvania (in Hungary) immediately after the declaration of war against Austria-Hungary. During September they conquered about one-fourth of Transylvania and captured nearly 7,000 prisoners. The Rumanian staff confidently expected that General Sarrail, the allied commander in Macedonia, would keep the Bulgarians from attacking, and that Russia would take care of the Austro-German forces on the Russian front. Rumania itself was left unprotected, a rash proceeding that brought about a speedy collapse of the new ally.

On September 2 a Bulgarian force invaded the Rumanian Dobrudja. Subsequently, the Germans under General von Falkenhayn trapped the Rumanian forces in the mountains of Transylvania, and invaded Rumania itself, and Field Marshal von Mackensen on December 8, after a series of brilliant victories, entered the city of Bucharest. The net results of the fighting from November 15 to December 8 were the rout of the Rumanian army, the capture of 80,000 prisoners and the conquest of the greater part of Wallachia (Southern Rumania). Lines of communication with Constantinople were opened, and large stores of supplies fell into the hands of the Central Powers, giving them additional means for carrying on the conflict.

It was subsequently revealed that chief blame for Rumania's plight must be placed on several of Russia's government officials, notably Premier Sturmer, a reactionary and a Pro-German. He had been instrumental in persuading Rumania to come into the war at a time when Germany could best cope with the situation, and had kept back promised Russian troops from Rumania when Bulgaria took the offensive and when Von Mackensen attacked. Through his intrigues needed supplies had been withheld when the Rumanians were sending desperate pleas for help, and before any operations began Rumania's plans were in the hands of the German officials. For these and other crimes Sturmer was indicted at the time of the Russian revolution, he was placed in prison, where he died, in September, 1917.

The War in Asia. In January, 1916, a Russian army under Grand Duke Nicholas invaded Turkish Armenia, drove back the Turkish forces in disorder, and on February 18 entered the fortified city of Erzerum, capturing over 320 guns and a great store of

supplies. In the spring Trebizon was captured, and in July the city of Erzurum, an important strategic center, 110 miles west of Erzerum, was taken. Elsewhere in Western Asia, however, the struggle did not go so well with the allies. General Townshend's British forces, besieged in Kut-el-Amara (see above), were starved into submission and surrendered on April 23, 1916. The force was diminished by fighting and hardship to fewer than 9,000 men, and the expedition was regarded by the English as a grave mistake. Russian expeditions against the Bagdad Railway also failed.

Allied Victories in Africa. At the beginning of 1916 only two colonies remained to Germany, Kamerun and German East Africa. Kamerun was completely overrun by Belgian,

however, did great damage to allied shipping before they were destroyed. Among these were the *Biwak* and the *Kongoberry*. The former cruised the Indian and the South Pacific oceans for three months, but were finally destroyed near Java by an Australian armada, on November 9, 1914. The *Kongoberry* also had a successful career before its destruction on the coast of German East Africa.

The German Far East Squadron of five powerful cruisers, after defeating a smaller British fleet in November, off the coast of Chile, was itself defeated on December 8 off the Falkland Islands. Another important engagement occurred on August 22, in the night of Heligoland, when a British fleet, accompanied by torpedo-boat destroyers, was led into action by Sir David Beatty. Three German armored cruisers and two destroyers were sunk. German raiders at various times bombarded English coast towns, and were somewhat successful in eluding the vigilance of British warships. On the other hand, Germany's hope of weakening England by striking terror into the hearts of the civilian population of these towns was quite unsuccessful.

The allies lost a good many ships through mines as the war continued, and a few German cruisers were still menacing allied shipping when a new form of naval warfare, the submarine, began to threaten the allies. In February, 1915, Germany announced that its submarines would destroy any merchant vessels venturing into the waters surrounding Great Britain and Ireland. Great Britain retaliated by declaring a virtual blockade of all Germany, and from that time on the submarine and the blockade engaged in a desperate fight to the finish. The importance of Germany's decision to use the underwater boat against merchant vessels was not at that time fully realized. It was destined to have far-reaching effects; in fact, it brought about Germany's downfall.

On May 31, 1916, occurred the only battle of the war in which the main fleets of Germany and England participated. It was fought in an arm of the North Sea—the Skagerrak—about fifty miles off Jutland. The British fleet was in command of Sir John Jellicoe but the division which bore the brunt of the battle was commanded by Vice-Admiral Beatty. The German fleet consisted of five battle cruisers, seventeen dreadnaughts,



AFRICAN COLONIES LOST BY GERMANY

British and French troops in January, and in February a powerful Boer army from South Africa, under the command of Jan Christian Smuts, invaded German East Africa. This army, in cooperation with British and Belgian troops, had conquered the greater part of the colony by the close of the year.

The War on the Sea. Early in the war German commerce was driven from the seas, British naval supremacy having saved the situation for the allies. The main German fleets did not attempt to dispute this supremacy, but remained at their bases at Kiel and Wilhelmshaven, protected by great fields of submarine mines and the strong fortifications of Heligoland. Several German cruisers,

eight predreadnoughts and several fast light cruisers and destroyer flotillas. In the British fleet there were six battle cruisers, four fast battleships, several fast light cruisers and destroyers, and twenty-five dreadnoughts. The Germans claimed that their high-seas fleet was cruising about in the hope that it might meet and give battle to the British fleet. The latter was on one of its periodical cruises in the North Sea.

In the afternoon, Vice-Admiral Beatty, who was in advance of the main force of the grand fleet, became aware of the presence of the Germans, and after maneuvering for position, opened fire simultaneously with the enemy. The battle lasted well into the night, without decisive results at the time. Losses on both sides were heavy, with the British suffering the more severely in number of ships destroyed. They admitted the loss of fourteen vessels and 5,613 men, the Germans, eleven ships and 3,968 men. However, the German ships retired to their base and the main fleet did not venture out again during the war. It was afterwards disclosed by a German naval authority that misty weather and skilful seamanship alone saved the German fleet from overwhelming defeat, and that the battle convinced the German command that it was impossible to wrest from the British their control of the sea through battles of this nature. From that standpoint the British won a victory, though they suffered heavier losses than their enemy.

Effects of Submarine Warfare. Once the German submarine warfare was launched, complications with neutral nations developed. In May, 1915, the Cunard liner *Lusitania* was torpedoed without warning off the coast of Ireland, while on its voyage from New York to Liverpool. About 1,150 persons lost their lives, including 114 Americans. The Germans considered this a justifiable act of reprisal because of the blockade, which was keeping food and other necessities out of Germany, but it was generally regarded as a violation of international law and of the laws of humanity, and aroused feelings of horror throughout the civilized world.

Of the neutral nations, the United States was the most powerful and the one whose good will was most needed by the belligerents. The sinking of the *Lusitania* brought to a climax certain diplomatic correspondence which had been passing between the United States and Germany since the an-

nouncement of the submarine campaign, and was the occasion of a series of notes from President Wilson in which he insisted on Germany's respecting the rights of neutrals on the seas. Other sinkings followed, however, and though the President apparently secured from Germany a promise to abstain from torpedoing merchant vessels without warning, unrestricted submarine warfare was announced as a deliberate policy early in 1917 (see below). The heavy losses inflicted on allied shipping by the submarines put naval experts on their mettle, and a vigorous anti-submarine campaign caused the destruction or capture of large numbers of undersea boats.

Events of 1917. The allies suffered a tremendous blow in 1917 in the collapse of Russia, but this was offset by a great diplomatic triumph, the entrance of the United States into the war. America's action profoundly impressed the Central and South American nations, many of which declared war on Germany or broke off diplomatic relations. Siam and China, in Asia, and Liberia, in Africa, also associated themselves with the allies, as did Greece, in Europe. The ever-widening circle of German opponents showed the extent of the feeling against submarine warfare and the ruthlessness of German warfare on land. Heartrending stories of the treatment of conquered peoples and reports of Turkish massacres of Armenians and Syrians added fuel to the flames of resentment that seemed to sweep around the world. Notwithstanding the powerful coalition against the Central Powers, their armies held their own in the fateful year of 1917, and they nearly put Italy out of the war. War declarations of the year were as follows:

United States, on Germany	Apr 6
Cuba, on Germany	Apr 8
Panama, on Germany	Apr 8
Greece, on Germany	July 22
Siam, on Germany	July 22
Liberia, on Germany	Aug 7
China, on Germany	Aug 14
Brazil, on Germany	Oct 26
United States, on Austria-Hungary	Dec 7
Panama, on Austria-Hungary	Dec 10

The following nations severed diplomatic relations with Germany:

Bolivia	Honduras
Costa Rica	Nicaragua
Ecuador	Peru
Guatemala	Santo Domingo
Haiti	Uruguay

WORLD WAR

Military Events in the West. British and French Drives. In January, 1917, after a period of intensive preparation, the British renewed the battle on the Somme front, gradually pushing the German line back, and by March 15 had come within artillery range of Bapaume, one of the main objectives of the Somme campaign. About this time indications pointed toward an extensive withdrawal of the German forces to a strong defensive position which came to be known as the "Hindenburg line." By March 15 the retreat was well under way, and General Haig thereupon ordered an advance along the entire front from Arras to Roye. At the same time the French began an advance from Roye to Rethondes. Still fighting ensued for several days, the Germans counter-attacking at intervals, but steadily moving back before the violent onslaughts of British and French. Something like 1,000 square miles of desolated territory were deemed by the German withdrawal.

On April 9 a new offensive on a gigantic scale was begun, with the British striking for Lens, the center of the coal district, and for Saint Quentin. Among the spectacular feats of this drive was the capture of Vimy Ridge by the intrepid Canadians. This ridge was the key position to Lens, which was thus placed in a dangerous "pocket." The British pushed their way to within a few hundred yards of Saint Quentin, but failed to take the city. By June the battle had become a deadlock, but the British had achieved one of their chief aims, the wearing down of German man-power and material. In counter-attacks during the Battle of Arras the Germans suffered very heavy losses.

Interest in the progress of the war was shifted to Belgium in June, where the British line at Ypres needed attention. It was in the form of a huge S written backwards, Ypres occupying the upper curve. In the lower curve was Messines Ridge, which was held by the Germans. If the Ypres salient were wrested from the allies the way to Calais would be opened to the Germans, and the premonitory condition of the British line was a source of great anxiety. For over fifteen months preparations to capture the ridge were under way. Under the heights a series of mines ten miles in extent was placed, and these were exploded on June 7 by electric contact. The blast blew off the top of the hills and destroyed scores of

trenches and dugouts, while the artillery played on the exposed positions with unparalleled violence. English, Irish, Australian and New Zealand infantrymen then swept forward, capturing the entire ridge and assaulting the German positions in the rear. When this phase of the battle ended the British had captured defenses on a front five miles wide and three deep, straightened their line, taken 7,000 prisoners and removed the threat to Calais.

Meanwhile, on April 16, the French, under General Pétain, began an assault on the Aisne River, between Soissons and Rheims. Fighting continued at intervals until November, when the French held positions dominating the Aisne and Ailette valleys, including the celebrated Chemin des Dames (Road of the Ladies), capture of which was one of the great French exploits of the war. Forty square miles of territory were liberated, and 12,000 prisoners taken, besides immense quantities of war material.

Fighting in Belgian Flanders was renewed by the British in July and continued to the end of the year. They hoped to drive the Germans from the Belgian coast, to force them to abandon their submarine bases at Ostend and Zeebrugge, and to encircle the important industrial city of Lille. The ultimate objects of the campaign were not realized, but the new positions gained held out promise of better success for the 1918 campaign. Late in November the French battlefield came again into prominence when General Byng made a spectacular attack in the direction of Cambrai, and a heavy assault approached within two miles of that German-held city. However, by a quick counter-stroke Hindenburg's armies pushed their foe back two miles, and the effect of Byng's dash was nullified.

The Collapse of Russia. In spite of disorganization and political upheaval in Russian official circles, a Russian army began an offensive in Baltic Russia, in January, with the capture of Mihailov, capital of Courland, the chief objective. The movement was a failure, and in March the long threatening revolution broke out in Petrograd. The czarist government was set up.

The revolutionaries declared their loyalty to the allied cause, but were unable to hold their armies together as a fighting machine. German propaganda further weakened the

morale of Russia's troops, and it was soon evident that whatever turn the revolution took the country was practically out of the war and could not longer be counted on for support, even to the extent of continuing to menace Germany and keeping German regiments on the eastern front. Under Kerensky as Premier an attempt was made to establish a republic on a moderate Socialist basis, but the radical elements rapidly organized, and in November, headed by Lenin and Trotsky, they overturned the Kerensky régime. These radicals were known as the *Bolsheviks*, meaning *those of the majority* (for further details see RUSSIA and the article BOLSHEVIKS).

The Bolsheviks promised the people bread and peace, and immediately set about negotiating a treaty with the Central Powers which should put Russia out of the war. The peace envoys met at Brest-Litovsk, German eastern headquarters, once an important city in Western Russia, but since 1915 in ruins.

Perhaps never before had the world witnessed so one-sided a peace conference between nations which did not meet as victor and vanquished. Germany, through a legislative majority, had proclaimed its desire for peace without annexations or indemnities. At the conference, however, the German military leaders declared that Russia could not include German-occupied territory in peace discussions. This was a vital point in the negotiations, for during the summer and fall, while Russia was in political and industrial chaos, German armies had taken Riga and the provinces of Esthonia, Livonia and Courland, and had gained triumphs in the south where the Ukraine had declared for self-government.

Trotsky, in charge of the Russian peace delegation, unable to change the German purpose, withdrew his fellow members from Brest-Litovsk, declaring he would make no peace, yet would not continue the war. Subsequently, Lenin signed a humiliating peace, which deprived Russia of all occupied territory (for details, see RUSSIA). Even after the agreement was signed German armies continued to push farther into Russia, and Petrograd was threatened. The Bolshevik government thereupon moved to Moscow.

Rumania Crushed. At the close of 1916 Southern Rumania (Wallachia) was in the possession of the Central Powers, but the northern district, Moldavia, was not yet

subdued. In December the Teutonic forces began an offensive to complete their conquest of the country, and by the middle of February, 1917, they had under control all but a few sections in the north. The withdrawal of Russia from the war, later in the year, forced Rumania to make a reluctant peace. In March, 1918, the humiliating Treaty of Bucharest was signed, by which Rumania was forced to cede the Dobrudja as far as the Danube River to the Central Powers, and to grant economic advantages, such as the control of railways, wheat harvests and oil wells, for an indefinite period. The treaty made the country practically a vassal state of Germany.

Italy's Disaster. The account of the Italian campaign on a preceding page stated that the armies of Victor Emmanuel captured Gorizia in August, 1916. In the spring and summer of 1917 they continued their attacks, winning brilliant victories and approaching to within ten miles of Triest. Then in the fall of 1917, when the allies were feeling the effects of the Russian collapse, they were disheartened by news of disaster from the Italian front.

After a campaign of subtle propaganda, during which Germany led several Italian divisions to believe peace to be near, Austro-Hungarian troops with the aid of strong German forces opened an offensive (October 21). Not only did Italy lose the ground that had been won the year before, but its enemy penetrated Italy itself and was not stopped until the Piave River was reached. About 1,000 square miles of Italian territory were thus laid under German domination. Venice was threatened; its works of art were removed, its wonderful buildings protected as much as possible, and the inhabitants sent farther south. Had not the lowlands around the mouth of the Piave been flooded to arrest the progress of the enemy, the city might have been attacked successfully.

Allied Victories in Asia. Though allied prospects were dimmed by the Russian, Rumanian and Italian disasters, the year 1917 was favorable for them in Asia. Early in the year the British began a campaign in Mesopotamia to offset the unsuccessful expedition of General Townshend. Under General Sir Stanley Maude British troops worked their way up the Tigris, forced the Turks to abandon Kut-el-Amara (February), and in March triumphantly entered the city

of Bagdad. The evacuation of the historic city was a blow to Turkish prestige, and with its fall the valuable cultivated fields of Babylonia came into British control. By fall the British had advanced hundred miles north of Bagdad and had secured control of the Bagdad-Samara railway. In November they suffered a disaster in the death of General Maude.

Palestine was also the scene of allied victories. Early in February, 1917, the British under General Sir Edmund Allenby captured Rafa, on the Sinai Peninsula, and began an advance on Gaza and Beersheba. Not until autumn were these towns captured, but after the fall of Gaza, in November, progress was rapid. On December 10 Jerusalem was captured, and the Holy City was in Christian hands for the first time in four centuries.

Greece. Greek neutrality was abandoned in June, 1917, when the king abdicated, and the pro-ally statesman Venizelos formed a new Ministry. King Constantine was succeeded by his second son, Alexander, as the crown prince was suspected of pro-German tendencies. In this diplomatic upheaval the entente had an active part. The allied army in Macedonia was now in a position to advance, as there was no longer danger of an attack in the rear on the part of Constantine.

The United States Enters the War. Throughout the year of 1916 President Wilson had been seeking by diplomatic correspondence to persuade Germany to modify its submarine warfare, which the President held was in direct violation of international law. What he sought in particular was Germany's promise that merchant and passenger vessels should not be attacked without warning. The Germanic allies were the only belligerents causing the death of noncombatants on the high seas, and feeling in the United States was stirred to a high pitch when sinkings continued in spite of apparent yielding to the President's demand. Then, early in 1917, came a crisis.

On January 31 Count von Bernstorff, the German ambassador at Washington, delivered a note to the State Department announcing the inauguration of unrestricted submarine warfare on the first day of February. The note stated that from that date all neutral and enemy vessels encountered anywhere on the seas would be sunk without warning, but

that the United States would be permitted weekly to send one ship in each direction across the Atlantic, if it were properly marked for identification and followed a designated course. Germany thus renounced a former promise to America to respect the rights of nations upon the high seas.

President Wilson thereupon severed diplomatic relations with Germany, and on February 3 Bernstorff was handed his passports. The two nations were not officially at war until April 6, but in the meantime the United States became an armed belligerent. On February 26 President Wilson asked Congress for authority to arm American merchant vessels. The House passed a bill granting such authority, but a filibuster in the Senate by a small group of opposition Senators prevented its passage before the expiration of the session of Congress, on March 4. The President, however, found authority for arming ships in an old act of 1819, and so nullified the efforts of the opposition.

On March 12 the policy of armed neutrality was announced. Meanwhile the country had been stirred to increased indignation by the publication of a note from the German Foreign Minister to the German ambassador in Mexico, directing the latter to propose an alliance with Mexico against the United States should America and Germany become enemies. A similar suggestion to Japan was proposed.

The policy of arming merchant vessels did not meet the situation, and sinkings continued. A large section of the population and press felt that actual participation in the war was the only honorable course, a feeling shared by the President, who called the Sixty-fifth Congress in special session on April 2. Before a joint assembly of both houses he read an eloquent war message in which he asked that Congress recognize a state of war between the United States and Germany. On April 4 the war resolution passed the Senate by a vote of 36 to 6, and on April 6 it passed the House by a vote of 373 to 50. The resolution was worded as follows:

Whereas, the Imperial German Government has committed repeated acts of war against the Government and the people of the United States of America. Therefore be it

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled

That the state of war between the United States and the Imperial German Government which has thus been thrust upon the United States is hereby formally declared, and that the President be, and he is hereby, authorized and directed to employ the naval and military forces of the United States and the resources of the Government to carry on war against the Imperial German Government, and to bring the conflict to a successful termination all of the resources of the country are hereby pledged by the Congress of the United States.

Chronological Survey of Events. The following is a list of events showing the relation of the United States to the war from its outbreak in 1914 to the war resolution of 1917. It shows that there were numerous hostile acts on the part of Germany and its agents from an early date.

1914

- Aug 3—Congress appropriates \$250,000 for emergency relief of Americans in Europe
- Aug 4—America issues proclamation of neutrality
- Aug 5—President Wilson offers to mediate between belligerent nations, appeals for peace
- Aug 5—German-American cables out.
- Aug 14—German kaiser tells United States Ambassador Gerard that he is unable to accept president's offer of mediation, says neutrality of Belgium had to be violated on strategical grounds
- Aug 15—Congress appropriates \$1,500,000 for use of American diplomats and consular officers abroad to rescue American citizens
- Aug 16—United States cruisers Tennessee and North Carolina arrive at Falmouth, England, with money for relief of stranded Americans
- Aug 18—President Wilson appeals to citizens of United States to observe strict neutrality towards all belligerents
- Aug 18—Belgium protests to the United States against throwing of bombs from German aircraft on Antwerp
- Sept. 11—Congress appropriates \$1,000,000 for expenses of American embassies and legations abroad representing various belligerents
- Sept. 16—Mission from Belgium appeals to President Wilson against alleged atrocities committed by Germans
- Oct. 22—American emergency war tax—increase in internal revenue tax—becomes a law
- Nov. 1—Rockefeller Foundation announces that it will help Belgium relief work
- Nov. 16—United States launch from cruiser Tennessee fired upon by Turks at Smyrna.
- Nov. 25—Allies ask United States to help enforce neutrality of Ecuador and Colombia against German intrigue
- Dec. 24—Admiral von Tirpitz, chief of German navy, outlines possibilities of ruthless submarine war and asks "What will America say?"

1915

- Jan 14—Buchthorne plant of John A. Roebling, Trenton, N. J., engaged in work for allies, burns, loss \$1,500,000 Incendiary suspected
- Jan 28—German auxiliary cruiser *Prinz Eitel Friedrich* sinks American ship *William P. Frye* and brings its crew to American port.
- Feb 2—Attempt to blow up international railroad bridges between Vanceboro, Me., and New Brunswick, Canada, confessed by Werner Horn, German captain
- Feb 4—Germany proclaims waters surrounding Great Britain and Ireland to be war zone and says that on and after Feb 13 "every enemy merchant ship found in said zones will be destroyed, it not always being possible to avert dangers that threaten crews and passengers Even neutral ships are exposed to danger in war zone, as in view of misuse of neutral flags ordered Jan 31 by British government, and of accidents of naval war it cannot always be avoided to strike even neutral ships in attacks that are directed at enemy ships"
- Feb 10—United States replies to German proclamation, warning Germany the destruction of American vessels or loss of American life is an indefensible violation of neutral rights and that the United States will hold Germany to strict accountability for all such acts
- Feb 16—Germany protests to the United States against British blockades, justifies its submarine campaign on ground of "starvation methods" of allies, says it is not the intention of Germany to destroy neutral lives and neutral property
- Feb 18—American freight ship *Evelyn*, carrying cotton from New York to Bremen, strikes mine in North sea, one life lost.
- Feb 18—Great Britain explains that American flag was raised on liner *Lusitania* at request of American passengers and that this practice has been recognized heretofore as permissible in an emergency
- Feb 20—United States sends identical notes to Great Britain and Germany asking that neutral vessels be not endangered, that no floating mines be turned loose, that no anchored mines be placed in high seas, that submarines be not used to attack merchantmen, that no neutral flag be used on belligerent ships, that the nations agree that United States send foodstuffs to American agents in Germany for distribution to non-combatants
- Feb 22—American ship *Carib* sunk at mouth of Elbe river, Germany
- March 1—Germany replies that it would be willing not to use floating mines, refuses to give up anchored mines, sets forth submarine is not to attack merchant ships except to visit and search, sets forth enemy is not to use neutral flag nor to arm its merchantmen; demands that raw material be passed in addition to foodstuffs, the plan for the distribution of which it says "is generally acceptable"

WORLD WAR

WORLD WAR

5520

- March 1—France and Great Britain announce that in view of indiscriminate sinking of ships by Germany, allies will hold, detain and take into port ships carrying goods of presumed enemy origin, destination and ownership.
- March 4—Congress creates coast guard and naval reserve.
- March 6—Five men killed in two explosions in Du Pont powder plant at Haskell, N. H.
- March 8—Charlies Eurode, New York to obtain false passports for German reservists.
- March 15—Great Britain replies to American note of Feb. 20 that it cannot consider action on it since Germany will not abandon mine laying or submarine warfare. It protests against German acts affecting civilians in Belgium and northern France, mine laying on high seas, mistreatment of British prisoners of war, sinking of British merchantmen, bombing of defenseless towns, and air raids.
- March 27—American merchantman Falaha, 5,011 tons sunk by submarine, one American life lost.
- March 30—United States issues protest against interference with its trade.
- March 31—The United States presents to Germany a claim for \$221,000 for sinking of the William P. Frye.
- April 1—Five men killed in explosion in plant of Equitable Powder company, Alton, Ill.
- April 2—American ship Greenbrier sunk by a mine immediately after leaving Bremen for New York.
- April 4—Germany protests that food shipments are not reaching her, since American war materials can reach only one group of belligerents she suggests an embargo on all war shipments.
- April 5—Germany offers to put the case of the William P. Frye up to prize court, to which the United States objects.
- April 21—United States objects to protest against sending munitions to Germany.
- April 22—German embassy at Washington publishes warning in New York newspaper against passengers sailing on Lusitania.
- April 28—American oil tank steamer Cushing bound from Rotterdam to Philadelphia is attacked near Antwerp by German aeroplane which throws three bombs.
- May 1—American oil tank steamer Gulfight torpedoed by German submarine off Scilly Islands, three Americans dead.
- May 7—Cunard liner Lusitania, from New York to Liverpool, torpedoed off Irish coast by German submarine without warning. 116 Americans killed.
- May 12—Gencoton storehouse, Wallington, N. J., Chemical company, wrecked by explosion, three dead.
- May 13—United States sends first protest to Germany on sinking of Lusitania as not compatible with international law.
- May 21—American ship Nebraskan, chartered for British White Star Line, carrying coal for United States navy, damaged by a German submarine near Ireland.
- May 28—Germany defends sinking of Lusitania, asserting that it carried munitions and traveled too fast to be warned.
- June 4—United States again asks Germany, in second Lusitania note, for assurances that American lives and property will be safeguarded in future.
- June 12—Bernhard Dernburg, German propaganda leader in America, who justified sinking of Lusitania in newspaper interview, departs for Germany via Norway because of his unpopularity.
- June 28—British minelayer Armanian sunk by German submarine, twenty Americans dead.
- June 28—Austria protests to the United States against shipment of munitions to allies.
- July 1—Germany admits America's legal right, but insists action is not neutral because part of legitimate are cut off from supply.
- July 4—Frank Holt (Eric Maenner) tries to blow up capitol at Washington to protest against making munitions, next day tries to kill J. P. Morgan, commits suicide in jail, July 5.
- July 7—Incendiary fire discovered in hold of transatlantic steamer Minnehaha.
- July 8—Germany promises that American ships in the presentation of legal voyages will not be hindered. American lives on neutral vessels shall not be placed in jeopardy.
- July 9—Canadian line steamship Ordnua, carrying Americans, attacked off Irish coast by submarine, with torpedo and shells without warning, uninjured.
- July 12—Germany declares attack on steamer Nebraska was due to misunderstanding, expresses regret and promises compensation.
- July 18—Public disclosures prove attempts by German sympathizers in United States to destroy by bombs the following transatlantic vessels: Bankdale, Tournai, Devon City, Lord Erne, Cressington, Samland, Lord Devonshire, Kirkcaldy and Strathay.
- July 18—Mixing building of United Safety Powder company at Jefferson, Ky., wrecked, three killed.
- July 21—United States, in third Lusitania note, asks Germany to make reparation for lives lost and disavow act, declares that such another attack will be considered as deliberately unfriendly.
- July 25—American ship Leelanaw, from Arbroath to Belfast, loaded with fax, torpedoed by U-boat, sank off the Orkneys.
- Aug. 5—British steamer Iberian, 5,225 tons, sunk, three Americans killed by shell fire, three wounded.
- Aug. 18—United States replies to Austria-Hungary that it is not violating neutrality in making munitions.
- Aug. 16—Five killed in explosion of gunnery (Pa.) plant of Mtns. Explosives company.

Aug 19—White Star liner Arabic, 15,801 tons, torpedoed, two Americans killed

Aug 24—German Ambassador Barnstorff gives out interview in Washington saying loss of American lives on Arabic was "contrary to our intention"

Aug 28—Two Du Pont powder mills at Wilmington, Del., destroyed, two killed

Aug 30—Shrapnel plant of H. J. Dodd company, Baltimore, Md., burned

Aug 30—Through discovery of letters carried by James J. F. Archibald and seized by English at Falmouth, United States learns that Dr. Constantin T. Dunba, ambassador of Austria-Hungary to United States, writes his superior that he has plans under way to "disorganize and hold up for months, if not entirely prevent, manufacture of munitions in Bethlehem, Pa., and middle west, which, in opinion of German attache, is of great importance and amply outweighs expenditure of money involved." Other disclosures also made

Sept 1—Germany promises that "liners will not be sunk by our submarines without warning and without safety to lives of noncombatants, provided that liners do not try to escape or offer resistance."

Sept 4—Steamship Hesperian, 6,124 tons, torpedoed one American killed

Sept 8—President Wilson asks recall of Dr. Dunba, Austro-Hungarian ambassador, on ground of Archibald disclosures

Sept 18—Germany, after negotiation in case of the William P. Frye, agrees that amount of damage shall be settled by conference of experts and says submarines have been ordered not to destroy American merchantmen carrying conditional contraband

Sept 21—British house of commons makes public thirty-four letters and documents found on Archibald, two from German attache Boy-Ed, and one from Von Papen, German captain

Sept 24—Austria-Hungary reiterates protests against America's making of munitions

Oct 12—Edith Cavell, English nurse, executed at Brussels in spite of protest of American legation

Oct 24—United States secret service men arrest Robert Fay, Lieutenant in German army, and others in New York on charge of conspiring to destroy munitions' ships by bombs, Fay, Walter Scholz and Paul Daschle found guilty May 8, 1915

Nov 7—Ancona, 8,810 tons, sunk by Austrian submarine, twenty-four Americans killed

Nov 10—Machine shop of Bethlehem Steel company, South Bethlehem, Pa., burned with loss of \$5,000,000

Dec 3—United States asks Germany to recall Capt. Boy-Ed, military attache, and Capt. Von Papen for "improper activities in military and naval matters." Boy-Ed said to have handled \$750,000 for chartering ships to supply German raiders

Dec 3—United States steamer Communipaw sunk

Dec 4—Karl Buenz, Adolf Hochmeister, George Koetter and Joseph Poppinghaus of

the Hamburg-American line convicted of conspiracy to deceive and defraud the United States by supplying German cruisers at sea

Dec 5—American oil tank ship Petrelito attacked

Dec 6—United States sends Austria note of protest against sinking of Ancona

Dec 7—President Wilson advocates preparedness in message to congress

Dec 30—British liner Persia sunk by submarine, Robert N. McNeely, newly appointed consul of United States at Aden, Arabic, killed, also Homer R. Salisbury, American missionary.

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Jan 6—Brindisi, Italian steamship, strikes mine, one American killed

Jan 7—Germany in official note promises submarine shall insure safety of crews and passengers, if accident prevents this, will make reparation, offers to pay indemnity for Americans lost on Lusitania

Jan 27—President Wilson begins speaking tour through country to advocate large volunteer army with reserve of 500,000

Feb 16—Austria and Germany announce to United States that after Feb 28 they will treat armed merchantmen as belligerent ships

Feb 17—Lusitania case regarded as settled, Germany agrees to warn liners, but objects to armament

Feb 24—President Wilson, in letter to Senator Stone, declares rights of Americans cannot be abridged or denied and that order to Americans to keep off armed merchantmen would be such denial

March 2—Gore resolution declaring sinking of armed merchant vessel by submarine with loss of American lives cause for war, lost in senate

March 7—House refuses to con sider McLemore resolution to warn all American citizens against traveling in armed ships

March 8—One American injured in torpedoing of Norwegian bark Silvius by German submarine

March 16—Dutch liner Tabantia, with Americans aboard, torpedoed without warning British merchantman Berwindale, with four Americans aboard, torpedoed

March 26—French channel steamer Sussex torpedoed without warning, Americans injured British merchantman Engleman torpedoed, one American killed

March 27—United States asks Germany if her submarine sank the Sussex

March 27—British merchantman Manchester Engineer, with Americans aboard, sunk without warning by torpedo

March 28—United States asks Germany if her submarine sank the Engleman

March 29—United States asks Germany if her submarine sank Manchester Engineer

March 31—Horst von der Goltz, alleged German spy, discloses plot to invade Canada, destroy Welland canal, admits enlisting Germans in Baltimore and elsewhere

- April 1—United States asks Germany if her submarine sank British steamer *Eagle Point*, with Americans aboard on March 22
- April 1—United States asks Germany if her submarine sank British steamer *Berwindale*, with Americans aboard on March 18
- April 11—Germany replies *Berwindale* tried to escape submarine, Englishman tried to escape, Manchester Engineer not established, *Eagle Point* tried to escape, Sussex sinking not yet traced to submarine
- April 15—United States furnishes proof that German submarine sank *Sussex*, threatens break off diplomatic relations if similar sinking is repeated
- April 18—President Wilson goes before Congress to explain details of submarine controversy and warning to break relations
- April 19—Government officers in New York seize papers of Wolf von Isel, former secretary to Capt. von Papen, German ambassador asks for papers on ground of diplomatic immunity; government offers to give him any that he can identify as belonging to embassy
- May 4—Germany announces submarine commanders have received orders not to sink ships without warning or saving human lives, unless they offer resistance or attempt to escape
- May 8—Germany in detailed statement declares all ships encountered by submarines will be dealt with according to international law, if neutral is damaged Germany will make reparation without recourse to a prize court or submit to international arbitration
- May 15—New York holds first preparedness demonstration in country with 125,612 men in line
- May 18—*Bataan V*, Dutch liner, sunk by mine, one American killed.
- June 3—Chicago preparedness demonstration with 184,314 men in line
- June 4—Chamberlain's army bill providing for volunteer army and federalized national guard, becomes law
- June 12—Congress appropriates \$200,000,000 for training national guard
- July 1—Act drafting national guard into regular army becomes a law
- July 21—Dutch liner, *Koekoek Wilhelmina*, with American aboard, torpedoed
- Aug. 28—Act increasing navy becomes law, adds 157 ships, ten battle ships, six battle cruisers, ten scout cruisers, fifty destroyers, nine foot submarines, etc.—also regular submarines
- Sept. 2—British merchantman *Edwina*, with twenty-eight Americans aboard, sunk by mine or torpedo
- Sept. 7—Shipping board to encourage naval auxiliary formed
- Sept. 1—Emergency revenue act becomes law, provides for special munitions tax, etc.
- Oct. 1—German war submarine U-83 puts in at Newport, R. I., on Oct. 2 it sinks *Strathdene*, British, West Point British, *Staphano*, British, *Bloemerdijk* Dutch, and *Christian Knudsen* Norwegian. United States destroyers rescue survivors. Staphano had many Americans abroad, returning from vacation in Newfoundland
- Oct. 18—*Aulana*, British merchantman, sunk without warning in English channel, twenty-one Americans aboard
- Oct. 28—American ship *Lamia* sunk off Portsmouth by submarine
- Oct. 29—British steamer *Martina* sunk without warning by German submarine, six Americans killed.
- Nov. 7—American steamer *Columbian* shelled and sunk by German submarine of Spanish coast.
- Nov. 28—American merchantman *Chemung* sunk of Andalucia.
- Nov. 16—Germany refuses to give United States Consul Pike right to cross Germany from Warenseim to Switzerland.
- Nov. 21—United States sends protest against deportation of Belgians to Germany
- Dec. 4—Italian steamship *Palma*, with twenty-six Americans aboard, sunk
- Dec. 16—British ship *Russian*, with seventeen Americans aboard, sunk
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- Jan. 11—Franz Boop, German consul-general at San Francisco and Baron George W. von Brincken, conspired of conspiring to injure American shipping, munitions plants, etc., and sentenced to two years imprisonment
- Jan. 18—British steamer *Tarrawoodie* sunk, seventy-two American seamen taken as prisoners to Germany
- Jan. 22—President Wilson addresses Senate on a world league for peace, proposes a peace without victory
- Jan. 21—Germany gives United States Ambassador Gerard in Berlin six hours notice of opening of ruthless submarine warfare decisive ships will be sunk within specified zones around British Isles whether neutral or not if submarine has no time to warn or allow men to escape
- Feb. 1—In view of Germany's summary breaking of pledges regarding safety of neutrals in submarine zone President Wilson breaks diplomatic relations and gives Ambassador Gerard his passport. The latter was given safe conduct to Germany
- Feb. 3—American merchantman *Hollidale* sunk by submarine
- Feb. 18—American merchantman *Lyman M. Lusk* sunk by German submarine
- Feb. 21—Publication is made of intercepted note from German Foreign Secretary Zimmerman to German minister in Mexico City, dated Jan. 19, 1917, proposing alliance between Mexico, Japan and Germany and suggesting Mexico be paid by annexation of American southwestern states for co-operation with Germany
- Feb. 26—Spanish embassy in Berlin informed men from *Tarrawoodie* had been released. Men reached Switzerland March 11, complained of cruel treatment as prisoners of war
- Feb. 26—British steamer *Laconia* sunk; five Americans killed

March 8—American merchantman Algonquin sunk by German submarine with shell fire and bombs, crew escapes

March 8—Dr Chakraberty, prominent in Indian independence movement, admits getting \$60,000 in New York from Wolf von Igel, German agent, to start trouble in India

March 9—President Wilson orders navy department to arm American merchant vessels

March 9—President Wilson calls congress to meet in extraordinary session April 18

March 12—United States served formal notice on neutrals of severance of relations with Germany and asks neutral support

March 14—China informs United States it has severed diplomatic relations with Germany

March 15—American influence accomplished this

March 17—First armed American liner, St. Louis, leaves New York, carrying naval gun crew under decision of president allowing American ships to arm

March 18—Three American ships sunk by submarine—City of Memphis, Illinois and Vigilancia, fifteen members of Vigilancia crew lost

March 21—President Wilson calls congress to meet April 2, instead of April 16

March 22—American oil ship Healdton, with cargo worth \$2,150,000, sunk by submarine, seven Americans killed

March 23—Immense mass meeting in New York demands action against Germany, 12,000 pledge loyalty

March 23—Capt Franz Rintelen of German navy and two others convicted in New York of conspiracy to interfere with shipment of munitions

March 24—President Wilson orders Brand Whitlock, United States minister, and all consuls in Belgium to leave

March 25—President Wilson signs bill to increase navy personnel by 25,000 men to 37,000

March 26—War department calls units of national guard in nine states and District of Columbia, 12,000 men

March 26—War department calls 25,000 men

March 30—The federal government calls on all government employees, totaling 560,000, to aid secret service department in detecting spies and plots

April 1—American steamer Astic, 1,722 tons, value \$800,000, sunk off Brest, twenty-eight men, including Boatswain's Mate Dopoulos, of United States naval guard, dead

April 2—Six Germans convicted in New York of conspiracy to destroy munitions ships by bombs, among them the chief engineer of the German steamship Friedrich der Grosse, and four assistant engineers

April 2—The 65th congress meets in special session and President Wilson asks it to declare that a state of war exists between the United States and Germany

April 4—American merchantman Missonian, left Genoa April 4, 4,881 tons, sunk without warning in Mediterranean

April 4—Senate votes war resolution

April 5—Disclosures made showing that an office for the issuance of fraudulent American passports to German reservists was maintained by Hans von Wedell and others under the supervision of Capt. von Papen and with the assistance of Wolf von Igel

April 5—Belgian relief ship Trevis, 2,881 tons, carrying food to Belgium, torpedoed

April 6—House votes war resolution

April 6—War measure signed by President Wilson. Formal war proclamation is issued

The Nation at War. When war was imminent the administration called for volunteers to join the regular army, the navy and the marine corps, but the decision to enter the war on a major scale brought with it the necessity of a new military policy. The President therefore asked Congress to pass a selective draft law. Such a bill passed both Houses, and was signed by the President on May 18. On June 5 about 10,000,000 men between the ages of twenty-one and thirty-one were registered, and selections for a new national army were soon under way.

The government established sixteen training camps for drilling the national guard (state militia) units, sixteen for training the army to be selected from conscription, and eighteen great aviation fields. On September 2, the first detachments of 600,000 selected men were sent to the training grounds; in May, 1918, the second contingent of 583,000 was called. The regulars were mobilized earlier.

In the meantime Major-General John J. Pershing was appointed commander in chief of the American forces to be sent to France. The American army in France was known as the "American Expeditionary Force" (A E F), and the first contingent reached French soil on June 27.

It was announced that Secretary of War Baker was prepared to have 2,000,000 soldiers in France by the autumn of 1918. Secretary Baker visited France in March and April, 1918, to acquaint himself with the actual conditions. In May Congress provided ample appropriations for an army of between 3,000,000 and 5,000,000 men, should such a host be needed.

First American Losses. In October, 1917, the American nation was informed that after months of training its first soldiers had been sent to the battle front. The location selected for them, while requiring confidence and technical skill, was in a comparatively quiet sector almost on the Franco-German

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border east of Nancy. On November 8 they had a spirited encounter with German troops in a trench-raiding enterprise, in which the latter were repulsed. Three Americans—Privates Thomas F. Hought, Pittsburgh, Pa.; James B. Gresham, Evansville, Ind.; and Medic D. Hay, Glidden, Iowa—were killed, eleven were wounded, and a like number were captured by the enemy. The number were Americans whose training was completed increased rapidly from that time, and many divisions were in the battle line when the great German offensive began in March, 1918.

First Losses of Sea
Fleet.—The government to send
the battleship *South Carolina* to the United States, limited only by the

aviations were in the hands of the Germans. Before the end of 1917 the ability of the government to send soldiers to France was limited only by the transport service. In September the United States commandeered and placed in commission sixteen passenger vessels belonging to Germany and Austria which had been interned in American waters, thus materially adding to the allied overseas fleet. Among these was the *Petershof*, the largest vessel afloat, this boat was renamed the *Louisianen*. The carrying capacity of the sixteen was about 50,000 soldiers. Before the end of the year troop movements were greatly accelerated and until February 6 not an American soldier had been lost enroute to France through submarine-infested waters. On that day the steamer *Tucumcari*, one of many ships in care of a British convoy, was sunk by a torpedo off the north coast of Ireland. There were 2,179 United States troops on the *Tucumcari* Division aboard and all except 171 were saved.

"Liberty" Loans. Upon entry into the war
therefore unheard-of appropriations of money
were required to maintain a vast army and
greatly increased navy. Before many months
had elapsed the United States government
was spending over \$1,000,000,000 per month,
including loans to allied nations. To meet
such expenditures income taxes were in-
creased, many internal revenue taxes were
more than doubled, many special taxes were
levied and the nation began to borrow money
from its citizens.

These bonds were appropriately called "Liberty" bonds. The first loan was called for June 15, 1917, and \$2,000,000,000 was subscribed. It was more than 50 per cent over-subscribed, the amount realized being \$3,455,220,550; the interest rate was 3½ per cent. The second loan was called for October 22, for \$3,000,000,000. This, too, was as



Private Enright, Private Gresham. Private
Hay, we salute you! Yours have become im-
perishable names upon the Roll of Honor
for to you belongs the proud distinction of
having been the first of this nation's forces
in France to make the supreme sacrifice.
While cannon boomed a grim sacrifice
was avowed; now comes a profound thanks from
one who officiated at

"In the name of France I bid farewell to Private Gresham and Private Hay of the 4th division, in the French army, and in the names of the French commanding officer we say good-bye to you simple burials."

name of France I bid
Private Gresham
American army
"Of their own
prosperous and happy will they
be. They knew war was continuing
and that the forces fighting in
the country were long-prepared
for the brutal dominion
of Europe knew

Private American Army
of their own free
prosperous and happy country
here they knew war was coming
Europe, they knew love of justice and civilization
were still shocked by the long-prepared
for honor forces still expressing all barbarity of brutal domination
and were still necessary to enormous hardships. They knew
the terrible miseries which
private army would bring.

to give up
not others forgot more
therefore ask that the
these young men be left here
forever We inscribe on the tomb
the first soldiers of the republic of
State to fall on the soil of Fra
and justice on his head The passerby of
travelers out of their way
tribute

United States for liberty and justice to stop and uncover his secret men of heart will go to their respective tribunals. "Private Hay, In the name of France I receive your souls! Farewell!"

heavily oversubscribed, the amount being \$4,617,582,500; the interest rate was 4 per cent. The third loan was for \$1,000,000. It was called May 4, 1918.

being +
4 per cent. The
\$100,000, called for May 1,

Leavly oversubscribed, the amount realized
was \$17,532,500; the interest rate was
4% and the loan was for \$3,000,-
It resolved

about \$4,000,000,000, and was one-third oversubscribed. The interest was $4\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. In September the fourth loan of \$6,000,000,000 was called, thus, too, being oversubscribed. After hostilities ceased a fifth loan, appropriately called the "Victory Loan," calling for \$4,500,000,000, was oversubscribed.

In addition to these major loans, the government inaugurated during the same period the sale of "thrift" stamps of 25 cents face value, to be exchanged in quantities for \$5 bonds, called "baby" bonds, to mature in five years.

Aircraft Program. One of the earliest appropriations of Congress was for \$340,000,000 to build factories for the production of flying machines for war purposes and to manufacture them in large quantities. A superior engine was produced and it was named the "Liberty" motor. The public was led to expect production on a large scale by January, 1918, but in this department of war activity the results achieved in a year were exceedingly disappointing. Several thousand machines were built during that time for students in the national aviation camps, but until the late summer of 1918 there were no battle, bombing or observation planes in Europe. Hundreds of American aviators in France were provided with machines of British and French manufacture.

Work of the Navy. Immediately following the declaration of war the American navy was ready for active duty. In May a large number of torpedo-boat destroyers, submarine chasers and vessels of larger size were sent into European waters to oppose with the British and French the submarine menace. In command of the American contingent was Vice-Admiral Sims. Between 1914 and 1918 the navy was increased over one hundred per cent in number of vessels, though not in tonnage, and the personnel was more than trebled.

Early Campaigns of 1918. Germany prepared for a supreme offensive in the spring, and the Entente allies prepared for it as best they could, but knew not at what points between the North Sea and Switzerland to expect it. That it would prove the supreme test of the war was deemed certain, for Germany had moved scores of divisions of troops from the Russian front to face its foes in France. The strength of the Central Powers in France was estimated at 220 divisions, or

about 2,500,000 fighting men, with great reserve forces to fill ranks thinned in battle. In the approaching crisis the American General Pershing placed his entire command and all supplies he possessed at the disposal of the allies. General Ferdinand Foch of the French Army was placed in supreme command of the unified allied forces, and he was given the title of marshal.

On March 21 the German offensive began on a 50-mile front in Northeastern France, of which Amiens was practically the center and one important objective. German troops in close formation, assisted by thousands of great guns, rolled in great waves westward and by April 9th the British, who had been selected as the first Teuton opponents, were pushed back in places about twenty-five miles. It was the German plan to separate the British and French armies, then to render the former non-effective. Afterwards the French could be brought to terms.

Early in April the British elected to make a stand. They had retired in good order and the armies were intact. The Germans, who had advanced in solid formation, suffered immense losses, and were forced for a time to suspend their assault to reform their divisions. On April 21, with "backs to the wall," the British succeeded in halting the progress of their enemy in a battle which it is said astounded the German high command. In Belgium Hindenburg's forces had taken Messines Ridge and Kemmel Hill, two very important heights, but they could at the time go no farther. Another period of time elapsed for a second realignment of forces. Amiens was yet nine miles west of the foremost German lines, and Ypres was still three miles within the allied lines.

On May 27 the Germans renewed their offensive on a scale nearly as ambitious as that of March 21, on a front of forty-eight miles. Over 800,000 men were hurled against the allies, with an equal number in reserve. The main offensive was directed towards Paris, in four days twenty-six miles were gained, and the Germans were again on the Marne River on June 1, from which they had been driven in 1914. On June 9 another offensive gained a few more miles; it was then definitely halted.

Attack on Zeebrugge. In April, 1918, a detail of ships from the British navy made a spectacular attack on the heavily-protected submarine bases of the Germans at Ostend



The dotted line represents the Western limits reached in the tremendous German drive which began on March 21 and ended the middle of July. Thereafter Marshal Foch and his allied armies were masters of the situation and their western forces were driven steadily and persistently back toward Germany. The solid heavy line indicates the battle front on the day the armistice was signed. The broken lines are territorial boundary lines.

and Zeebrugge. At the latter point, particularly, the Englishmen scored heavily. They sank three obsolete vessels filled with cement in the harbor entrance, destroyed a section of the mole and severely damaged a number of German light war vessels and much of the military defenses. The defenders were completely surprised. It was the most daring exploit of any naval contingent in the war. On May 10, the fleet was repeated at Ostend, with horrors equally great, an obsolete warship cement filled, was sunk in the harbor mouth.

The Last Days. On June 1 the Germans were within forty-six miles of Paris. The speed of their gigantic drive was slackened, and in succeeding efforts they gained a total of only fifteen miles, which brought them within thirty-one miles of the French capital. At this point the forces of the United States began to make their presence felt. The first thrilling move by a wholly American contingent was at Belleau Wood, where United States marines fought with such valor and

success that the grateful French republie named the spot the "Wood of the American Marne". The encounter which finally stopped the German advance which had marked the turning point of the war was the exploit of American marines, in the second Battle of the Marne on July 21, when they threw back the advancing enemy at Chateau Thierry. Together the Americans and the French pushed this advantage so rapidly that before the end of the month the German Crown Prince fled from the Marne salient and withdrew his army as rapidly as pos-

able. The above successes immediately stiffened the allied lines, and what had been for three months a desperate defense was turned into an offensive movement from the North Sea to Switzerland which the German high command could not slacken. Mile by mile, day after day, the German forces retreated, but offered vicious rear-guard engagements, in which many thousand machine guns were employed to stop the advancing allies.

In September a new American man-power bill became effective, the selective draft having been extended to men from thirty-one to forty-five. Foch knew that he had unlimited reserves to fall back upon, and the offensive against the Germans was pressed with vigor. One by one the cities of France which had been dominated by the Germans for four years were retaken. Soissons, Cambrai, Saint Quentin, Noyon, Lava and Lille again became French, and the famous "Hindenburg line" was permanently broken.

On September 13 the American First Army corps were assigned the task of driving the Germans from the southern end of the battle line. In two days they cleared the Saint Mihiel salient and later attempted the most difficult task of driving the foe from the hilly Argonne Forest region, north of Verdun. The attention of the world was turned more particularly to the spectacular retreat of the Germans farther north, but the American task in the Argonne region, one of the stiffest fighting problems of the entire war, was a highly important adventure. Metz was the objective of the Americans, and had not the surrender of the Germans occurred on November 11, the Americans would eventually have reached it. On the day before the armistice was signed they entered Sedan, the historic city which had witnessed the disastrous battle which imposed a German peace upon France in 1871.

In Belgium, meanwhile, Field Marshal Haig and King Albert were driving the Germans out of the country that had first felt the brunt of the war. By November 9 (see accompanying map), the Germans had not only abandoned the coast, but retired from the whole country west of Ghent. Had not the Germans secured an armistice on November 11 their armies would have suffered an overwhelming defeat, a fact the new German government admitted in August, 1919. Their position was rendered doubly precarious by the downfall of their three allies.

Collapse of Bulgaria. In the middle of September an allied army made up of French, British, Italian, Greek, Serbian, Czecho-Slovak and Jugo-Slavic forces under General Franchet d'Esperey, began a vigorous offensive against the Bulgarian forces in Macedonia. The Bulgars were soon in full retreat, and when Sofia itself was threatened the Bulgarian government asked for an ar-

mistice. On September 30 fighting ceased, the Bulgars having surrendered unconditionally. The capitulation of Bulgaria opened the way for the liberation of Serbia, Montenegro and Rumania, destroyed Germany's *Mittel Europa* plans, cut off direct communication with Turkey and paved the way for the collapse of both Austria and Germany.

Surrender of Turkey. After the capture of Jerusalem, at the close of 1917, General Allenby began extensive preparations for a campaign to put Turkey out of the war. In the later operations he was assisted by Arabian forces, as the kingdom of Hedjaz (see ARABIA) had declared its independence of Turkey in November, 1916, and had become a valued member of the entente. In September British and Arabs began an advance in Mesopotamia and Palestine, which came rapidly to a climax. Toward the close of the month the British reached the Sea of Galilee, while the Arabs carried everything before them east of the Jordan. In October Damascus fell; later in the month Aleppo, the Turk-German base for the armies in Asia Minor, was captured, and about the same time the Turks were completely defeated along the Tigris, and communications with Mosul were cut.

In view of the breakdown of their forces, the Turks could no longer hold out, and asked for an armistice. General Townshend, who had been a prisoner since the surrender of Kut-el-Amara, bore the note asking for terms, which he delivered to the allied commander of the Aegean fleet. Negotiations were held on the island of Lesbos, and terms were signed on October 30. Among the armistice provisions was the opening of the Dardanelles to the allies.

Austria-Hungary Capitulates. The closing weeks of the war saw Italy retrieving the great disaster of 1917. In June the Italians began an attack on the Asiago Plateau and along the Piave River, but the movement failed. On October 24 the Italians, with help of a few divisions of their allies, began a major offensive against the Austrians, which developed into one of the most brilliant victories of the war. Trent, Udine and Trieste were occupied, and the Austro-Hungarian army was routed.

Austria-Hungary asked for an armistice on October 31, and terms were accepted on November 1. As one of these terms granted

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the allies the right to occupy any Austrian territory desired, the armistice made an invasion of Germany from the south a near possibility. The Germans, who were losing their own fight, saw the hopelessness of continuing the struggle, and they, too, accepted drastic armistice terms.

Germany Admits for Peace. As soon as the surrender of Bulgaria became known in Germany there was a political upheaval. Chancellor von Herting resigned, and Prince Max of Baden, a moderate man of democratic tendencies, succeeding him on October 2. A coalition Ministry was formed, in which the Social Democrats and Bauer were represented. President Wilson was requested to take steps for the restoration of peace. A series of notes between Germany and the United States followed, in which President Wilson obtained sweeping concessions from the German government, such as promised to cease attacks on merchant ships, to evacuate all occupied territory and to accept those principles which had been laid down in various war messages. On November 5 the allied and associated governments authorized Marshal Foch to state the terms on which they would enter into an armistice. German envoys were sent once sent to French headquarters, and on November 11 they signed the following allied demands:

Evacuation within fourteen days of Belgium, France, Alsace-Lorraine and Luxembourg.

Surrender of 3,000 guns, half field and half artillery, 30,000 machine guns, 3,000 flame throwers, and 1,500 airplanes.

Surrender of 5,000 locomotives, 150,000 cars, 50,000 wagons and 10,000 motor lorries.

Surrender of coal and iron there and stores of coal return of allied prisoners, but German prisoners not to be returned before peace was signed.

Evacuation of west bank of the Rhine, the allies to hold the crossing of the river at Coblenz, Cologne and Mayence for a twenty-mile radius.

The east bank of the Rhine to become a neutral zone and to be evacuated in nine days.

German troops to retire at once from any occupied territory which before the war any longer to Russia, Rumania and Turkey.

The allied force to have access to this evacuated territory.

Abrogation of Brest-Litovsk and Rumanian treaties.

Evacuation of all German forces in East Africa within one month.

Surrender of all German submarines.

Surrender of seventy-four warships, including six city destroyers, ten battle-ships, six battleships and eight light cruisers.

Restitution for damage done by German armies in invaded territories.

Return of cash taken from the national bank of Belgium.

Return of gold taken from Russia and Rumania.

Summary of the War. The chief events of the War of the Nations. The chief events below for ready reference.

June 21—Archduke Ferdinand and his wife assassinated in Sarajevo, Bosnia, Serbia.

July 28—Austria-Hungary declares war on Serbia.

Aug 1—Germany declares war on Russia.

Aug 4—State of war between Great Britain and Germany is declared. Germany declares war on Belgium.

Aug 5—Germans capture Liege.

Aug 10—German troops enter Brussels.

Aug 11—Japan declares war on Germany.

Russians victorious in East Prussia.

Aug 16—Large part of Louvain destroyed by Germans.

Aug 19—British win naval battle near Heligoland.

Aug 21—Germans inflict heavy defeat on Russians at Altenstein, Germans occupy Amiens.

Sept 1—Germans win decisive victory at Tannenberg, East Prussia, cross the Marne at France.

Sept 2—Lamburg captured by Russians, seat of French government transferred to Paris to Bordeaux.

Sept. 4—England, France and Russia sign compact not to conclude peace and separately.

Sept. 7—Germans retreat from the Marne.

Sept. 7-10—Germans retreat from the Marne.

Sept. 14—Battle of Aisne begins, pursuit by allies halted.

Sept. 15—First battle of Soissons fought.

Sept. 15—German bombard Reims and damaged cathedral.

Sept. 18—Battle of Aisne develops into continuous trench fighting.

Sept. 19—Russians capture Jaroslav and begin siege of Przemysl.

Sept. 23—British cruisers Cressy, Aboukir and Hogue torpedoed and sunk in the North Sea.

Oct. 8-10—Germans capture Antwerp.

Oct. 11—Germans capture Ghent.

Oct. 16—Fighting along the Yser river begins.

Oct. 23—Turkey begins war on Russia.

Nov 1—British cruisers Good Hope and Monmouth sink off Coast of Chile.

Nov 1—Tingtao captured by Japanese.

Dec 4—German cruiser Emden destroyed islands by British fleet.

Dec 5—French government officials return to Paris.

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Dec 14—Belgrade recaptured by Serbians
 Dec 17—Britain formally assumes a protectorate over Egypt
 Dec 28—Italy occupies Avlona, Albania

1915

Jan 1—British battleship *Formidable* sunk
 Jan 11—Heavy fighting northeast of Soissons
 Jan 24—British win naval battle in North Sea, sinking the German cruiser *Blücher* and damaging two other cruisers
 Feb 11—Germans evacuate Lodz
 Feb 13—Germans drive Russians from positions in East Prussia, taking 36,000 prisoners
 Feb 19—British and French fleets bombard Dardanelles forts
 March 1—Premier Asquith announces blockade by allies of all German, Austrian and Turkish ports
 March 10—Battle of Neuve Chapelle begins
 March 14—German cruiser *Dresden* sunk
 March 18—British battleships *Irresistible* and *Ocean* and French battleship *Bouvet* sunk in Dardanelles strait
 March 22—Fortress of Przemysl surrenders to Russians
 April 28—Germans force way across Ypres canal at Stenstraate and Het Sas
 May 3—Austro-Hungarian and German forces repulse Russians along the entire front of Malatow, Gorlice, Gronik and north of these places in West Galicia
 May 7—Liner *Lusitania* torpedoed and sunk by German submarine
 May 22—Italy formally declares war on Austria and orders mobilization of army
 June 2—Przemysl recaptured by Germans and Austrians
 June 28—Germans and Austrians capture Lemberg
 July 2—Totmice falls into hands of Italians
 July 28—Warsaw evacuated, Lublin captured by Austrians
 Aug 2—Germans occupy Miltau
 Aug 3-9—Battle of Hooge
 Aug 4—Germans occupy Warsaw
 Aug 5—Ivangorod taken by Germans
 Aug 6—British land at Suvla bay, Gallipoli
 Aug 17—Germans capture Kovno
 Aug 19-20—Germans take Novo Georgievsk
 Aug 26—Germans take Brest-Litovsk
 Sept 2—Germans capture Grodno
 Sept 5—Grand Duke Nicholas sent to the Caucasus
 Sept 8—Russians stop Germans at Tarnopol
 Sept 19—Germans capture Vilna
 Sept 20—Austrians and Germans begin drive on Serbia
 Sept 26-30—Battle of the Champagne
 Oct 6-10—Austro-Germans capture Belgrade
 Oct 12—Edith Cavell executed by Germans
 Oct 13—Bulgaria declares war on Serbia
 Oct 22—Bulgarians occupy Usak
 Nov 7—Italian liner *Anconia* sunk
 Nov 23—British victory near Bagdad
 Nov 30—Bulgarians take Pritrend
 Dec 1—British retreat from Bagdad
 Dec 8-9—Allies defeated in Macedonia

Dec 18—Sir John Douglas Haig succeeds Sir John French
 Dec 27-28—Heavy Russian offensive in Galicia and Bessarabia
 Dec 30—Liner *Persia* sunk in Mediterranean

1916

Jan 6—Russians capture Chortorysk
 Jan 8—British troops at Kut-el-Amara surrounded
 Jan 9—British evacuate Gallipoli peninsula
 Jan 10—Austrians capture Mount Lovcen in Montenegro, predreadnought King Edward VII sinks
 Jan 13—Cetinje, capital of Montenegro, captured by Austrians
 Jan 22—Scutari, capital of Albania, captured by Austrians
 Feb 16—Erzerum captured by the Russians
 Feb 21—Germans under crown prince begin attack on Verdun defenses
 Feb 26—Germans capture Fort Douaumont, French transport *La Provence* sunk
 March 2—Bitlis captured by Russians
 March 16—Admiral von Tirpitz resigns
 March 24—Sussex torpedoed and sunk
 April 5-7—Battle of St Eloi
 April 17—Trebizond captured by Russians
 April 18—President Wilson sends final note to Germany
 April 19—President Wilson explains diplomatic situation in speech before congress in joint session
 April 24—Insurrection in Dublin
 April 28—British force at Kut-el-Amara surrenders to the Turks
 April 30—Irish insurrection suppressed
 May 2—Several leaders of Irish revolt executed
 May 15—Austrians begin offensive against Italians in Trentino
 May 21—Great naval battle off Danish coast
 June 3—Germans assault British at Ypres. Russians under Gen Brusiloff begin successful offensive
 June 5—Lord Kitchener lost with cruiser Hampshire
 June 6—Italians stop enemy in Trentino
 June 11—Russians capture Dubno
 June 18—Russians capture Czernowitz
 June 25—Gen Brusiloff's army completes possession of Bukowina
 July 1—Battle of Somme begins
 July 15—Erzurum captured by the Russians
 July 26—Pozières taken by British
 July 27—British take Delville wood, Serbs begin attack on Bulgars in Macedonia
 Aug 2—French take Fleury
 Aug 3—Sir Roger Casement executed for treason
 Aug 5—British win victory north of Pozières
 Aug 9—Italians take Gorizia by assault
 Aug 18—Russians capture Jabloutzka
 Aug 22—Serbs capture Florina from Bulgars
 Aug 24—French take Maurepas
 Aug 27—Italy declares war against Germany
 Aug 28—Romania declares war against Austria-Hungary
 Aug 30—Romanians take Kronstadt in Transylvania, Bulgars seize Drama

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- Sept. 1—Romanians take Orsova and Hermannstadt.
- Sept. 2—Allies take Guillecourt and Chery.
- Sept. 7—Germans capture Tutea.
- Sept. 9—French recapture Fort Douaumont.
- Sept. 10—German-Belgian forces take Sillistria. Cossack, French reach outskirts of Rancourt.
- Sept. 11—French take Vermandovillers and Berry.
- Sept. 15—British capture Morval and Les Bœufs.
- Sept. 16—French and British take Comines. British take Thiepval and Goudecourt.
- Sept. 17—Venizelos proclaims a provisional government in Greece, to aid allies.
- Sept. 18—Germans defeat Romanians at Hermannstadt.
- Oct. 4—Germans recapture Kronstadt from Romanians.
- Oct. 11—Germans defeat Romanians in Alt valley and begin invasion of Roumania.
- Oct. 12—Illrians win victory on Carso plateau.
- Oct. 13—Germans capture Constantza.
- Oct. 24—Germans take Predeal.
- Oct. 25—Germans capture Vulcan pass.
- Nov. 1—French reconquer Fort Vaux.
- Nov. 12—French take all of Moulis.
- Nov. 13—British win battle of Ancre.
- Nov. 14—Monastir taken by Serbs, French and Italians.
- Nov. 21—Germans capture Orsova and Turnu-Sovierii.
- Nov. 25—Venizelist provisional government in Greece declares war on Germany.
- Nov. 26—Seat of Roumanian government removed from Bucharest to Jassy.
- Dec. 2—Battle of Argonne won by Germans.
- Dec. 4—British cabinet resigns.
- Dec. 6—Bukarest occupied by German forces.
- Dec. 18—New British cabinet formed with David Lloyd George at its head.
- Dec. 11—Italian battleship Regina Margherita sunk.
- Dec. 12—Germany proposes peace negotiations.
- Dec. 14—French recapture Vachevauville, Louvemont and Fort Hardcourt.
- Dec. 15—President Wilson sends note to belligerent nations asking them to make known their peace terms and to neutral nations suggesting that they support America's action.
- Dec. 22—Germany replies to President Wilson saying a direct exchange of views would be best way to bring about peace—gives no terms.
- Dec. 23—Scandinavian countries express sympathy with President Wilson's suggestions.
- Dec. 28—Allies make joint reply to Germany's peace proposal rejecting it as a war maneuver.
- Jan. 1—Germans complete conquest of Dobrogea.
- Jan. 1—Russians take offensive along Seesch river.
- Jan. 3—British battleship Cornwallis sunk.
- Jan. 10—Allies make joint reply to President Wilson and give their peace terms meeting on winter's reply of Dec. 20.
- Jan. 11—German government issues note concerning on winter's reply of Dec. 20.
- Jan. 13—Arthur Salter, British secretary for foreign affairs, sends note commanding President Wilson's peace suggestions.
- Jan. 14—Galeas under bombardment, German attacks on Riga front fail.
- Jan. 15—Germans defeated on the Saeth river.
- Jan. 17—British advance on both sides of Aare creek.
- Jan. 18—Germany defends deportations of Belgians, Russians routed at Namazi.
- Jan. 21—President Wilson addresses United States senate on subject of world peace and the establishment of a league of nations.
- Jan. 22—Battle between British and German destroyers in North sea.
- Jan. 25—Fighting on Hill 204 and Mort Homme hill near Verdun.
- Jan. 26—Russians win battle of Monte Cassel, British auxiliary steamer Laurentic sunk.
- Jan. 27—Ambassador Count von Bernstorff hands note to Secretary Lanning in Washington announcing the inauguration by Germany of an unrestricted submarine warfare on Feb. 1. Germany proclaims boundaries of blockade zones.
- Feb. 1—Germany begins unrestricted submarine warfare.
- Feb. 3—President Wilson orders that Ambassador Count von Bernstorff be handed his passport, directs the withdrawal of American counsuls from Germany and all Americans to leave Germany and announces his action in a speech before congress, suggests to neutral countries that they follow America's example.
- Feb. 4—American steamer Housatonic torpedoed and sunk.
- Feb. 5—President Wilson forbids transfer of American ships to foreign registry. German man ships interned at Manila seized.
- Feb. 7—British capture Grandcourt, German ships interned in American ports found crippled by crews.
- Feb. 8—Germany detains Ambassador Gerard in Berlin. His California torpedoed and sunk with loss of forty-one torpedoed and twenty-four crew.
- Feb. 13—Ambassador Bernstorff sails Germany via Halifax and Norway.
- Feb. 14—Scandinavian countries protest against Germany's sea warfare.
- Feb. 15—Germany under crown prince protest Reims and Verdun.
- Feb. 17—British troops capture trenches between a mile and a half of French front.
- Feb. 18—Entrance to New York harbor closed by steel net.
- Feb. 21—British take village of Petit Mirabeau and advance on a front of a mile.
- Feb. 22—Germans withdraw under cover of fog sector in full progress.
- Feb. 23—“Hindenburg retreat” from Somme railway on the Tigris, British win at Battle de Warlencourt.

- Feb 26—President Wilson appears before congress and asks authority to supply merchant ships with defensive arms and to employ other methods to protect American ships and citizens, British capture *Kmt-el-Amara*
- Feb 27—British take *Gonnecourt*
- Feb 28—The Associated Press reveals German plot to bring Mexico and Japan in alliance against the United States, letter from the German secretary of foreign affairs, Dr Alfred Zimmermann, to the German minister to Mexico suggesting the plan, published
- March 1—President Wilson, at request of Senate, confirms existence of German plot in Mexico, house grants president power to arm merchant ships
- March 2—Germany announces that on March 1 the final limit of grace for sailing vessels on the Atlantic expired, Russians capture *Hamadan*
- March 3—Foreign Secretary Zimmermann admits authenticity of letter to German minister to Mexico enganging alliance against the United States
- March 4—British invade Palestine and capture Hebron, United States supreme court decides *Ayppan* case in favor of owners
- March 5—Count Ferdinand von Zeppelin dies, French regain trenches in Champagne
- March 6—President Wilson calls a special session of congress for April 16, issues orders for the arming of American merchant ships
- March 10—Belgian relief steamer *Storstad* torpedoed
- March 11—Successful revolution in Russia, British capture Bagdad, Ambassador Gerard reaches Havana
- March 12—French capture Hill 135 in Champagne, state department in Washington gives formal notice of arming of American ships, American steamer *Algonquin* sunk without warning by German submarine, China breaks relations with Germany
- March 14—German chancellor promises reforms to Prussian diet
- March 15—Czar Nicholas II of Russia abdicates throne for himself and son The action was forced
- March 16—Grand Duke Michael Alexandrovitch renounces assumption of supreme power in Russia, British take St Pierre Vaast wood, American steamer *Vigilancia* torpedoed with loss of fifteen lives
- March 17—British take *Bapaume*, French take Roye, American ship *City of Memphis* sunk
- March 18—British and French take Peronne, Chaulnes, Nesle and Noyon, make ten mile gain on seventy mile front, Germans destroy everything in abandoned territory, American ship *Illinois* sunk by submarine
- March 19—American oil ship *Halditon* torpedoed with loss of a score of lives, French battleship *Danton* torpedoed with loss of 266 men, British and French continue advance, Germans say retreat is for strategic purposes
- March 20—French and British take a score of villages in their advance
- March 21—President Wilson calls extra session of congress to begin April 3 instead of April 16, "state of war" admitted to exist
- March 22—America recognizes new government in Russia
- March 23—French troops reach vicinity of St Quentin
- March 24—Washington announces withdrawal of Minister Brand Whitlock and American relief workers from Belgium, constitutionalist party in Russia votes for republican form of government, Germany extends barred zone to Russian arctic waters
- March 25—President Wilson calls part of national guard in the east into the national service for policing purposes
- March 26—British defeat large force of Turks at Gaza, Palestine, President Wilson calls into federal service 20,000 guardmen in eighteen central states
- March 27—British advance towards Cambrai, French approach La Fere
- March 28—Chancellor von Bethmann-Hollweg makes speech in reichstag saying that blame will be on America if war comes
- March 29—Foreign Secretary Zimmermann, in reichstag, explains his effort to embroil Mexico and Japan with the United States, German raider *Seeadler* sends captives to Rio Janeiro, President Wilson and cabinet decide that war with Germany is the only honorable recourse left to the United States
- March 31—More national guard units mobilized in the United States
- April 1—The *Astec*, an armed American steamer, sunk by submarine, Russian armada invade Turkey from Persia
- April 2—Special session of American congress opens, president in address asks that existence of a state of war with Germany be declared
- April 3—Russian relief steamer *Trevier* torpedoed
- April 4—Senate passes war resolution, American steamship *Missourian* sunk in Mediterranean
- April 5—Brazilian ship *Parana* sunk by submarine, British and Russian armies in Mesopotamia
- April 6—House passes war resolution, president signs resolution and issues war proclamation, all American naval forces mobilized, German vessels in American ports seized, Germans blew up their auxiliary cruiser *Cormoran* at Guam
- April 7—Cuba declares war on Germany, Panama declares that it will assist the United States in the defense of the Panama Canal
- April 8—Austria-Hungary announces break in relations with the United States
- April 9—Canadians take Vimy ridge in great British offensive north and south of Arras, Austrian ships interned in American harbors seized, Chile announces it will remain neutral

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- April 10—Brazil breaks off relations with Germany. Argentine government says it will support the United States. Eddystone ammunition plant explosion kills 135 persons April 11—Costa Rica places its ports at disposal of the United States.
- April 11—Bolivia breaks with Germany. Argentine ship Monts Protegido sunk by submarine.
- April 11—Barred defense zones around American harbors proclaimed by president. American and German socialists denouncing on peace terms, British drive Germans back on twelve-mile front near Leoben.
- April 14—House of representatives passes \$1,000,000 war loan bill without opposition. Paraguay expresses sympathy with the United States in the war with Germany. Uruguay condemns German submarine warfare and expresses sympathy with the United States.
- April 15—Great French offensive between Soissons and Reims begins. President Wilson issues proclamation warning traitors. British transports Cameroon and Adenian sunk with heavy loss of life.
- April 17—Senate passes war loan bill unanimously. British hospital ships Donagel and Lafrance sunk.
- April 18—Germans driven out of six villages between Soissons and Reims.
- April 19—American liner Mongolia sinks German U-boat. Nicaraguans endorse entry of United States into war with Germany.
- April 20—"American day" in Britain. Special services held in St. Paul's cathedral, Berlin. Despite retirement to "Hindenburg line" in face of allied attacks, two German destroyers sunk off Dover.
- April 21—Turkey breaks off relations with the United States. Balfour mission arrives in the United States.
- April 22—British mission arrives in Washington. Americans celebrating "United States day" in Paris.
- April 23—British begin new attack on Arras front. British capture Samars.
- April 24—Jeffre-Viviani French mission arrives in America. President Wilson signs big bond act.
- April 25—Jeffre-Viviani mission given evocation in Washington. President gives appointment to Elihu Root head of mission to visit Russia.
- April 26—Britain withdraws shipping blockade. Not so far as concerns America.
- April 27—Senate and house pass army draft bill. Guatemala severs relations with Germany. Secretary McAdoo announces that bond issues will be called "liberty loan" of 1917.
- April 28—Argentine congress adopts resolution in favor of strict neutrality.
- May 1—Strikes in munitions factories in Germany reported.
- May 4—United States begins making large loans to allies.
- May 4—American destroyers arrive in British waters and begin patrol work. Russian council of workmen and soldiers declares
- for peace without annexations or indemnities but sustains provisional government. British transport Transylvania sunk with loss of 418 lives.
- May 6—Great Britain joins French in asking that American troops be sent to France at once.
- May 6—International socialist conferring on peace in Stockholm.
- May 8—Liberia ends relations with Germany.
- May 10—Secretary Lansing says United States and allies will consider peace terms jointly.
- May 11—Congress of Haiti refuses to declare war on Germany.
- May 14—Espionage bill passes senate.
- May 14—British government suggests two plans for settling Irish question.
- May 17—First American Red Cross hospital unit arrives in England for service with British in France. Honduras severs relations with Germany.
- May 18—President Wilson orders the sending of a division of regulars to France under Maj.-Gen. J. J. Pershing, issued a proclamation fixing June 1 as date for the registration of men eligible for army service under draft law.
- May 19—Nicaragua breaks off relations with Germany. Russian provisional government reorganized. President Wilson asks Herbert C. Hoover to take charge of food administration in America during the war.
- May 20—German plot for world domination laid bare in Washington, two Chicago nurses killed in sun accident on ship bound for Europe.
- May 21—Italian war mission arrives in America.
- May 22—United States protests against holding of Americans in Germany. Russian peasants seize lands and burn houses.
- May 23—American medical unit receives King George. United States refuses passage to Stockholm socialist conference, passes peace war revenue bill calling for \$1,070,000,000.
- May 24—Rear-Admiral Wm S. Sims appointed vice-admiral, plan of raising \$100,000,000 for Red Cross announced.
- May 25—German aircraft raid England killing seventy-six persons and injuring 174. President Wilson designates June 18-25 as Red Cross week.
- May 26—Italians storm second Austrian line on Carso plateau.
- May 27-28—Italian offensive on Carso plateau continues.
- May 28—Minister of Finance Shingareff says Russia faces financial ruin on account of workingman's demands.
- May 29—Brazilian deputies revoke declaration of neutrality.
- May 31—Austrian parliament convened, many arrests made of persons opposing operation of conscription law, house defects and censorship.
- June 1—British airmen bombard Zeebrugge and Ostend, split in provisional government in Russia.
- June 2—Root communism arrives in Russia.

- June 1—British socialists urge peace without annexations
- June 5—Military registration day under selective draft law in the United States, approximately 10,000,000 men registered
- June 6—Lord Northcliffe appointed to represent Britain in America. British resume operations on Arras front.
- June 7—British begin great offensive at Messines, storming Wytschaede ridge and exploding great mines
- June 8—Gen. Pershing with staff and clerical force reaches London, force of 100 American aviators reach France, Austrian officers enter Russian lines with peace offers. Germany breaks with republic of Haiti
- June 9—President Wilson's note to Russia outlining American war aims made public
- June 10—British gain more ground around Messines in Ypres region
- June 11—American tank steamer Petrolite torpedoed, British take German trench system on mile front east of Messines ridge
- June 12—King Constantine of Greece forced to abdicate his throne
- June 13—Gen. Pershing lands in France; German aeroplanes raid London, killing 157 persons and wounding 430
- June 14—King Constantine leaves Greece
- June 15—Blockade of Greece is lifted
- June 16—Italians capture Corino Cauento in the Trentino, Belgian war mission arrives in United States
- June 17—Two Zeppelins raid British coast, one burned, Londoners demand reprisals for air raids
- June 18—Italians advance northeast of Jamiano
- June 19—Vice-Admiral Sims appointed to take temporary charge of allied naval forces in Irish waters
- June 20—Canadians capture trenches before Lens
- June 22—House passes food control bill, Rumanian mission arrives in America, Elihu Root speaks to large gathering in Petrograd
- June 25—President Wilson appoints exports council, Canadians take German first line trenches in front of Lens
- June 26—Venizelos becomes prime minister of Greece, severe report on Mesopotamian mission issued in London
- June 27—American troops arrive in France; French cruiser Kleber sunk by mine, congress of soldiers' and workmen's delegates in Russia declare against a separate peace
- June 28—Brazil revokes neutrality, heavy British attacks near Lens, Rumanian mission arrives in Washington
- June 29—Greece severs relations with Germany and her allies
- June 30—Russians open new offensive in Galicia, eighty-seven German ships seized in American ports turned over to shipping board for operation
- July 1—Russians attack on eighteen-mile front in Galicia
- July 2—President promulgates rules for exemptions in draft, French victory in Cerny
- July 3—Russian drive at Brusazany begins; artillery battle in Ypres salient
- July 4—Germans offensive south of Laon fails, France celebrates July 4, American troops parade in Paris
- July 5—British attack near Ypres
- July 7—German air raid on London kills and wounds many, President Wilson announces export embargo
- July 8—German attack on the Chemin des Dames repulsed
- July 9—President Wilson proclaims mobilization of national guard
- July 11—Germans drive back British troops on the Belgian coast to the Yser, taking 1,850 prisoners, Italians occupy Dalmatia
- July 12—Chancellor von Bethmann-Hollweg resigns
- July 13—Reichstag refuses to consider war credits
- July 14—George Michaelis becomes German chancellor
- July 17—French take German first and second lines northwest of Verdun
- July 19—Finnish diet declares for independence
- July 20—Draft day in the United States, hunting causes Russian defeat east of Lemberg
- July 22—Siam declares war on Germany
- July 23—Kerensky appeals to Russian army for support
- July 24—President Wilson accepts resignation of Gen. Goethals from shipping board, many units of Russian army refuse to fight, while the Germans sweep ahead
- July 25—Allied conference begins in Paris
- July 26—Death penalty restored in Russian army, German attack at Dixmude repulsed
- July 27—German aeroplanes raid Harwich, United States shipping board reorganized, Germans take Czernowitz and Kolomea
- July 28—More American troops arrive in France
- July 30—Heavy artillery duel in Flanders, Norwegian mission arrives in Washington
- July 31—British drive in Flanders begins, extending from Warneton to Dixmude
- Aug 1—Russians begin offensive in Galicia, but retreat in south
- Aug 2—Germans advance in Bukowina
- Aug 3—Austrians take Czernowitz, changes made in Russian cabinet, United States shipping board decides to commandeer shipping in American yards, Root mission returns from Russia, premier and nearly whole of Russian cabinet resign
- Aug 5—Canadians advance on Lens, Kerensky returns to office
- Aug 6—Kerensky forms new cabinet
- Aug 7—Liberia declares war on Germany, Mackensen begins attack on Romanians in Moldavia
- Aug 8—Canadian senate approves conscription, Russians fall back near the Sereth river
- Aug 11—Henderson leaves British cabinet
- Aug 13—German aircraft raid English coast
- Aug 13—Japanese mission arrives in America on war emergency business

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- Aug 14—China declares war on Germany and Austria-Hungary.
- Aug 15—Pop's peace appeal is published.
- Aug 16—British and French gain on nine miles front east and north of Ypres.
- Aug 18—Germans begin offensive on Isonzo. Italians begin offensive wrecking St. Quentin.
- Aug 19—French attack on both sides of Meuse in Verdun region, taking Avescourt wood, Le Mort Homme, Corbieres wood, Cumières, Taillat ridge, Hills 316 and 244, Monmort farm and 4,000 prisoners.
- Aug 21—Canadians take 2,000 yards in man trenches outside of Lens of German aeroplanes.
- Aug 21—Germans evacuate of Lens of German aeroplanes raid Dover.
- Aug 22—Japanese mission arrives in Washington, Russians evacuate Riga.
- Aug 24—Italians take Monthé Santo, French take Hill 304 near Verdun.
- Aug 25—French take fortified positions near Bapaume.
- Aug 26—French take Beaumont wood from Germans, British win east of Margicourt.
- Aug 27—General embark on exports beginning Aug 18 proclaimed by the president, full aid to Russia pledged by the president, reply of United States to pope's peace note sent.
- Aug 28—Civilians flee from Trieste, Canadian conscription bill signed.
- Aug 29—Italians gain complete control of Salmissa plateau.
- Aug 30—President fixes price of wheat.
- Sept 1—German troops appear on Carso front.
- Sept 2—Riga captured by the Germans, German planes raid Chatan, Burgund, killing 107 sailors and wounding ninety-two.
- Sept 4 and 5—German aeroplanes drop bombs on American hospital camp in France, killing five and wounding ten persons. Italians take Monte San Gabriele.
- Sept 5—U. S. W. forces in many cities raided, first contingents (5 per cent) of national army go to training camps.
- Sept 6—American liner Minnehaha sunk.
- Sept 7—State Department reveals plot given by Sweden to German minister's plot in Buenos Aires to cause sinking of Argentine ships, French launch new offensive on right bank of the Meuse.
- Sept 11—State department reveals secret aid given by Sweden to German chargé d'affaires in Mexico to German premier Kerensky proclaims Russia a republic.
- Sept 14—Premier Kerensky proclaims Russia a republic.
- Sept 15—British advance east of Westhoek.
- Sept 16—British advance along Ypres-Menin road to a depth of more than a mile and a half.
- Sept 17—Secretary Lansing makes public Bertrand's note asking for money with which to bribe congress, replied of Germany and Austria-Hungary to Pope Benedict's peace note made public.
- Sept 18—Price of steel made public between manufacturers and war industries board, German aeroplanes and Zeppelins raid England.
- Sept 17-18—Germans repulsed in counter-attacks east of Ypres.
- Sept 18—British occupy Ramadi on the Euphrates.
- Oct 1—German air squadrons raid English coast towns.
- Oct 4—British win on an eight miles front north of Langemarck.
- Oct 5—French repulse attacks on the Aisne many.
- Oct 6—Extra session of congress ends.
- Oct 7—Uruguay severs relations with Germany.
- Oct 8—Mutiny on German fleet made public.
- Oct 14-17—Germans take island of Ouessant by torpedo, one life lost.
- Oct 17—United States destroyer Cassin damaged by German raiders sink two British destroyers and eight merchantmen in North sea.
- Oct 18—Germans capture Moon Island four villages.
- Oct 21—French capture Malmaison fort and Italian front begun, part of Bainsizza plateau taken.
- Oct 22—Austro-German forces advance through Julian Alps, and Italian army defeated.
- Oct 23—Austrian and German troops advance through Julian Alps, and Italian army defeated.
- Oct 24—Germans and Austrians forces take Monte Santa, Goritz and Cividale, United States transport Finland torpedoed, but returns to port, nine men killed.
- Oct 25—Whole Italian Isonzo line falls, Italians retreat to the Tagliamento river.
- Oct 26—Germans advance southward from Udine, British take Beersheba.
- Nov 1—Germans advance through Roehsler ford and sink, Germans retreat from ford and sink, Germans retreat from Chemin des Dames, Italians abandon eastern bank of the Tagliamento river.
- Nov 2—Three Americans killed, eleven wounded and eleven captured by German trench raiding party, British attack Gazzola.
- Nov 3—British advance up the Tigris River.
- Nov 4—Austro-German forces cross the mid-die Tagliamento River.
- Nov 5—Italians abandon the Tagliamento line.
- Nov 7—Austro-German reach Tagliamento River, British take Gazzola.
- Nov 8—Austro-German forces cross the Livenza River.
- Nov 9—Livenza river and outflank the Italians in chief of the Italian army in place of Gen. Armando Diaz made the Italians form Plave river, inter-allied military council formed.
- Nov 10—Italians yield the east bank of the Plave river, British complete conquest of Passchendaele ridge, British take Astalon.
- Nov 11—Austro-German forces cross the Vidor bridgehead and take Belluno, the positions in the Sette Comuni plateau.
- Nov 12—Germans and Austrians advance down the Plave to Feltri.
- Nov 13—Austrians cross the Plave river at Kansen.
- Nov 14—Americans ambush German patrol on

French front, Austro-Germans occupy Primeland and Faitre
 Nov 15—Italians hold their positions on the Piave river, British take junction of Bear-sheba-Damascus railway
 Nov 16—Italians flood lands near Venice to stop advance of enemy
 Nov 17-18—Italians repulse attempts of enemy to cross the Piave
 Nov 18—British take Jaffa
 Nov 19—Italians attack on Asiago plateau
 Nov 20—Gen Haig starts drive on Somme front.
 Nov 21—British under Gen Byng takes Germans by surprise in Cambrai region advancing five miles and taking thousands of prisoners, German attacks in Monte Grappa region stopped by Italians
 Nov 22—Battle of Cambrai continues, German emissaries sent to parley with Russian peace faction
 Nov 24—Secret Russian treaties published
 Nov 25—French attack near Verdun
 Nov 26—British advance near Jerusalem, French and British infantry re-enforcements reach Italian lines
 Nov 27—Allied war conference assemblies in Paris
 Nov 28—Armistice negotiations begun with Germany by bolsheviki, conference of Scandinavian rulers held at Christiania, Norway
 Nov 29—German reichstag reassembles
 Nov 30—The Germans in a determined attack drove the British back from their positions for a distance of about two miles, nearly to the Bapaume-Cambrai road, at the south end of the new British front the Germans advance through Gouzeaucourt to Gouzeaucourt, later the British retake Gouzeaucourt and LaVaucquerie
 Dec 1—British succeed in regaining nearly a mile of the front lost near Gouzeaucourt, several American engineers killed in German attack
 Dec 2—London announces officially that "Most Africa has been completely cleared of the enemy," every German colony is now occupied by allied forces, armistice arranged between Russians and Germans
 Dec 4—President Wilson asks congress to declare war on Austria-Hungary, Gen Dukhonin killed by bolsheviki at Mohilev
 Dec 5—Tentons launch new offensive on Asiago plateau
 Dec 6—Great disaster caused at Halifax by explosion of munitions ship, United States destroyer Jacob Jones torpedoed and sunk
 Dec. 7—Congress passes resolution declaring state of war to exist between United States and Austria-Hungary, Austrians make gains on the Asiago plateau, Roumania forced to join Russia in peace parity
 Dec 8—Government in Portugal overthrown by revolution
 Dec 9—Gen Kaledines begins revolt against Russian bolsheviki, Italians check toe on Asiago plateau
 Dec 10—Capture of Jerusalem by British under Gen Allenby announced.

Dec 11—Gen Allenby formally enters Jerusalem, Japanese troops occupy terminal at Vladivostok
 Dec 12—German mass attacks near Cambrai gain 500 yards of British trenches
 Dec 14—Permanent allied naval council formed
 Dec 15—Armistice signed between central powers and bolsheviki at Brest-Litovsk
 Dec 17—Conscriptionists return to power in heavy Canadian vote
 Dec 26—Premier Lloyd George addresses parliament on Britain's peace terms
 Dec 28—German-Russian peace conference assemblies at Brest-Litovsk
 Dec 29—Seventh German war loan totaled over \$3,000,000,000
 Dec 26—At peace conference Germany proposes with Russia "peace without forcible annexations and indemnities"
 Dec 28—Vice-Admiral Wemyss appointed First Sea Lord of Britain Government takes possession of railroads in United States
 Dec 17—Turkish army failed to retake Jerusalem

1918

Jan 2—Germany refused to evacuate Russian territory
 Jan 4—Earl Reading, Lord Chief Justice of England, appointed special ambassador to the United States
 Jan 5—President Wilson addressed congress on peace, specified fourteen "rectifications of wrong and assertions of right"
 Jan 9—Conscription defeated in Australia
 Jan 10—War between Russia and Bulgaria ended, Don Cossacks proclaim republic
 Jan 12—Armistice between Russia and Germany extended one month
 Jan 14—Joseph Caillaux, former prime minister of France, arrested for treason
 Jan 16—Fuel administrator ordered industries closed five consecutive days and nine Mondays to save fuel and relieve railroad congestion
 Jan 18—Russian assembly dissolved by Lenin because of disagreement on peace, Prussian legislature reaffirms exclusive right of Emperor to make war and peace
 Jan 20—British vessels in Dardanelles destroyed German cruiser Breslau and drove Goeben ashore
 Jan 31—Economic condition in Austria leads to strong effort to end war
 Jan 22—One hundred and sixty thousand Turkish troops in Palestine desert
 Jan 25—Germany conditionally accepts four of President Wilson's war aims, rejecting ten.
 Jan 26—Fires in ship yards in Newark and Baltimore cause loss of \$2,000,000
 Jan 26—Revolution in Finland assuming serious proportions
 Jan 27—Three-fourths of Germany's troops have been sent to the western front from Russia
 Jan 30—Italians resume offensive on the Asiago front and advance their lines
 Jan 31—Serious strike riots in Germany

WORLD WAR

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WORLD WAR

- Feb 1—Major-General March appointed acting chief of staff of American army.
- Feb 4—Banks of the United States take issue of \$1,000,000,000 treasury certificates. Tug-camis sunk, carried 2,179 American troops. 171 lost.
- Feb 6—Germany announces 3,000,000 men on the western front preparing for gigantic offensive.
- Feb 9—Peace treaty between central powers and Ukraine signed.
- Feb 10—Boishevik role in Russia reported as becoming intolerable.
- Feb 18—Regardless of peace negotiations, Germany resumes hostilities against Russia.
- Feb 21—Boishevik government appeals to people to resist German invasion.
- Feb 27—Japan proposes joint military operations in Siberia.
- March 1—Official report showed 25 per cent of Canada's 400,000 killed or wounded, killed number 68,000.
- March 3—Russia signs Peace at Brest-Litovsk. Russia loses Ukraine, Estonia, Lithuania, Finland, the Aland Islands and three Transcaucasian provinces.
- March 4—Przemyslart Peace treaty signed between Romania and the central powers.
- March 4—American troops holding four and a half miles on battle front in France.
- March 5—Treaty of peace signed between Germany and Finland.
- March 9—Russian government transferred to Moscow.
- March 10—Secretary of War Baker reached France on tour of inspection.
- March 12—German troops occupy Odessa; driven out five days later.
- March 14—Allies notify Holland to seize Dutch ships in allied ports to seize British ships in allied ports.
- March 18—Premiers of the allies denounce "German's political crime against Russia."
- March 20—Holland's ships interned in allied ports seized.
- March 31—Germany's most stupendous offensive began in France on 60-mile front.
- March 23—Paris bombed from distance of 75 miles.
- March 25—Germans in swift advance reach Bapaume.
- March 28—Germans reach Mondidier, Pershing offers France the entire American forces in "the greatest battle in history."
- March 29—General Foch becomes supreme head of allied forces.
- March 30—Anti-conscription riots in city of Quebec, day light saving law in America becomes effective.
- April 2—United States had loaned allies in first year of war \$6,166,500,000.
- April 3—Forty thousand German troops landed in Finland.
- April 4—German offensive renewed east of Amiens, allied lines hold firm.
- April 6—American army at end of first year of war totals more than 1,000,000 in uniform.
- April 8—German attack in west shifted north around Mansfield ridge.
- April 12—German troops occupy Helsingfors, Finland.
- April 15—Count Cernia, Austrian minister of foreign affairs, resigned.
- April 16—Germans capture Messines ridge, Solo Pasha executed in France for treason.
- April 17—Baron Burian appointed minister of foreign affairs in Austria-Hungary.
- April 19—Italian army represented on French front, Lord Milner becomes British secretary of war.
- April 21—Germans slow up western offensive to reform their legions, Japan agrees to loan United States \$14,000 tons of shipping.
- April 22—Ireland preparing for general strike as protest against conscription.
- April 23—British naval raid against submarine bases at Fehmarnsund and Ostend.
- April 25—Germany demands heavy concessions from Holland, announced that United States expenditures at wage \$35,000,000 per day.
- April 26—Germans capture Mount Kemmel, south of Ypres.
- April 27—Germans and Austrians renew Italian offensive.
- May 4—Last day of third Liberty Loan. The \$2,000,000,000 asked for was over-subscribed, success.
- May 5—British naval sortie against Germany's submarine base at Ostend.
- May 27—Second great German offensive begins on a 45-mile front in the Aisne region.
- May 28—Germans had advanced ten miles over narrow area and taken twelve towns.
- May 29—Rhine area captured again by Germans.
- June 1—Germans only forty-six miles from Paris, after gaining nine miles in one day.
- June 4—First German submarine attack on United States coast and sink eleven ships.
- June 5—United States marines fight on the Marne near Chateau Thierry.
- June 16—United States marines capture south end of Belleau Wood.
- June 22—Italians defeat Austrians on the Piave.
- July 13—General Foch launches allied offensive, with French, Americans, British, Italian and Belgian troops.
- July 21—Americans and French capture Chateau Thierry.
- Aug 2—Germans recaptured by Foch in Saint Mihiel salient.
- Sept. 15—Americans launch successful attack in Saint Mihiel salient.
- Sept. 16—Allies cross Hindenburg line.
- Sept. 20—Bulgaria surrenders, after successful allied campaign in Balkans.
- Oct. 6—Germany asks President Wilson for armistice.
- Oct. 8—President Wilson refuses armistice.
- Oct. 9—Allies capture Cambrai.
- Oct. 13—President Wilson refuses Austrian peace plan and says Czechoslovak state must be considered.
- Oct. 21—President Wilson refuses latest German peace plan.

Oct. 27—German government asks President Wilson to state terms
 Oct. 28—Austria opens direct negotiations with Secretary Lansing
 Oct. 30—Italians inflict great defeat on Austria, capture 22,000, Austrians evacuating Italian territory
 Oct. 31—Turkey surrenders, Austrians utterly routed by Italians, loss 50,000 Austrian army, under white flag, enter Italian lines
 Nov. 3—Austria signs armistice amounting virtually to unconditional surrender
 Nov. 4—Allied terms are sent to Germany
 Nov. 5—Germany's envoys enter allied lines by arrangement
 Nov. 8—Kaiser Wilhelm abdicates and crown prince renounces throne
 Nov. 10—Former Kaiser Wilhelm and his eldest son, Friedrich Wilhelm, flee to Holland to escape widespread revolution throughout Germany
 Nov. 11—Germany accepts armistice terms

Some Interesting Figures. America's part in the World War is summarized in the following statement, given out by the chief of the statistical branch of the General Staff

Total armed force, including army, navy and marine corps 4,800,000
 Total men in the army 4,000,000
 Men who went overseas 2,088,000
 Men who fought in France 1,280,000
 Total registered in draft 24,234,021
 Total draft inductions 2,810,388
 Cost of war to April 28, 1919, \$21,550,000,000
 Battles fought by Americans, 18
 American deaths from battle wounds, 50,287
 American wounded, 205,690
 Deaths from disease, 65,073
 Total casualties in army, 223,122

During the war 7,450,000 men were killed, the various belligerents suffering as follows:

Russia	1,700,000
Germany	1,680,000
France	1,285,000
Great Britain	950,000
Austria	300,000
Italy	200,000
Turkey	250,000
Serbia and Montenegro	125,000
Belgium	100,000
Romania	100,000
Bulgaria	100,000
United States	45,000
Greece	7,000
Portugal	2,000

Peace Negotiations. The collapse of Germany as a military power was accompanied by a revolution, whereby the empire was abolished and a republic was established. Kaiser William and Crown Prince Frederick William fled to Holland, and on November 28 the emperor signed a formal document of abdication. Germany had thus fulfilled one of President Wilson's conditions, that the allies could not make peace with the

Hohenzollerns. The peace conference met in Paris in January, 1919, and German representatives signed the treaty in Versailles on June 28. For details of the conference and terms of the treaty, see VERSAILLES, TREATY OF

Related Articles. Various phases of the war and details connected with the subject which could not be treated in the general article may be found in the special articles listed below. The reader is also referred to the historical sections of the articles on the various countries affected by the war

	CITIES	
Aleppo	Constantinople	Paris
Amlans	Damascus	Petrograd
Antwerp	Fiume	Rheims
Aras	Jerusalem	Riga
Bagdad	Lemberg	Saloniki
Belgrade	Lens	Sofia
Berlin	Leipsig	Triest
Brest	Lille	Venice
Brest-Litovsk	London	Vardin
Brussels	Louvain	Vladivostok
Bucharest	Moscow	Warsaw
Budapest	Namur	Ypres
Calais	Ostend	

RECONSTRUCTED NATIONS

Armenia	Hungary
Austria	Jugo-Slavia
Czechoslovak Republic	Poland

STATEMEN AND RULERS

Albert I	George, David Lloyd
Balfour, Arthur J	Grey, Edward, Sir
Bernstorff, Count	Nicholas II
Charles I	Poincaré, Raymond
Clemenceau, Georges	Venizelos, Eleutherios
Constantine I	Victor Emmanuel III
Francis Joseph I	William II
George V	Wilson, Woodrow

MILITARY AND NAVAL COMMANDERS

Beatty, David, Sir	Jeffreys, Joseph J
Bullard, Robert L	Kitchener, Horatio H
Bob, Ferdinand	Lighthill, Hunter
Bromhead, John, Sir	Moltke
Haig, Douglas, Sir	Pétain, Henri
Hindenburg, Paul von	Pershing, John J
Jellicoe, John, Sir	Sims, William S

INSTRUMENTS OF WAR

Cannon	Poison Gas
Explosives	Submarine
Flying Machine	Submarine Mine
Fuzilier	Torpedo
Machine Gun	Torpedo Boat

MISCELLANEOUS

Balance of Power	Latvia
Balkan Wars	Lithuania
Bolshevik	Lusatia
Conscription	Mesopotamia
Courtland	Nations, League of
Dardanelles	Palestine
Dobruja	Siberia
Bethenia	Triple Alliance
Gallipoli	Triple Entente
Kiao-chau	Ukraine

WORMS, *worms*, a term loosely applied to many small, rather long, creeping animals, lacking feet entirely, or having very short ones, including such various forms as the earthworm, the grub of certain insects and intestinal parasites. The zoologist, however, confines the term to animals belonging to the branch known as *Vermes*, and accordingly he excludes the larvae of all insects. See *VERMES*.

WORMS, *worms*, *Germany*, situated on the Rhine, twenty-six miles southeast of

WORMWOOD

3947

Mann and twenty miles northwest of Hadelberg. It is an old city and contains many objects which are of interest because of their antiquity. Among these is the cathedral, which dates from the twelfth century, the Paulus-Kirche, which is still older. On Lather Platz is a monument to Luther, and it was in this city that he appeared before the diet in 1521 and refused to retract his theses (see LUTHER, MARTIN). The industries include the manufacture of textiles, leather, machinery, chemicals and cheery. Population, 1933, 51,346.

WORMWOOD, *wurm'wood*, a perennial herb native to Europe and parts of Asia, which has been introduced into the United States and Canada. The erect, hairy stem from two to four feet high, bears coarse gray leaves and small yellow flowers. From gray plant is extracted a bitter oil, used in the manufacture of the French liquor called absinthe, and as an ingredient of various medicines. In Biblical and other literature the plant is a symbol of bitterness.

WORSTED, *woſt'ed*, or *woſt'ed*, a tightly-twisted woolen thread made from long-fibered wool. The name comes from Worsted, the English village where it was first made. The thread is used for knitting and for weaving cloth. See *WOOT AND WOOL*.

MARU

WOUNDS, *wounds*, injuries to any of the soft parts of the body, occasioned by external violence and attended by a greater or less amount of bleeding. Guts, menses, stabs and bruises are good illustrations of wounds.

Poisoned wounds are those complicated with the introduction of some poison or venom into the part. If wounds are of such a nature that the edges can be brought together closely, and if then bacteria can be kept out, healing "by first intention" takes place rapidly and with little inflammation. When wounds are deep and open, they are slower in healing. Wounds poisoned by chemicals or by bacteria are likely to be serious, and sometimes an apparently trifling injury of this sort results in death.

The first step to be taken in the treatment of any of the wounds mentioned above is to stop the bleeding by binding tight the artery or vein which has been opened. Then thoroughly cleanse the wound with warm water, removing all foreign matter, and wash with some good antiseptic, such as borax and

in saturated solution, a weak solution of carbolic acid, or with iodine. Finally, bandage the wound with perfectly clean gauze or light cloth. These bandages should be removed frequently, and the wound should again be cleaned, disinfected and redressed extensively known as Daktiv's solution was

A fluid known as Dakin's solution was World War for irrigating wounds. It is a combination of chlorinated lime, sodium carbonate (dry) and sodium bicarbonate, and is an excellent antiseptic. See *SUSZAK*.

WREN, a very active little bird, common in America, Europe and Asia. The wrens are distinguished by their small size, slender beaks, short rounded wings, brown or gray mottled plumage and erect tails. The common house wren prepared for it, or crevices, wherever it can find them, seeming to have no fear of human beings and never hesitating to attack cats, dogs, swallows and other trespassers. The eggs

are from three to nine in number and are white, dotted with salmon-colored spots. The song of the wren is melodious and flute-like, and its ambling ways make it a great favorite everywhere.

WREN

It destroys large numbers of noxious insects, it is therefore a friend of the farmer and amply repays any care that may be taken of it.

The largest wren in the United States is the cactus wren of the Southwest, the smallest is the winter wren, only four inches long.

WREN, Christopher, Sir (1632-1723), one of the greatest of English architects, born in Knole, Kent. He was educated at Waldham College, Oxford, became a fellow of All Souls in 1653, was appointed later, and afterward was elected Savilian professor of astronomy at Oxford.

There were few trained architects in England in his time, and as a scientist he was appointed one of the commissioners to restore Saint Paul's Cathedral. Before the work of restoration began the great London fire of 1666 occurred, destroying the building. Wren had been gradually drawn by consultations deeper and deeper into the problems of construction, and ultimately had become an enthusiastic student. Thus pre-



pared, the labor of building Saint Paul's devolved largely on him, and he was occupied with the work from 1675 to 1710. At the same time he made many designs for other public buildings, and in the forty years following the great conflagration there was not an important public building in London that was not designed by him.

Among the notable buildings he designed are the modern part of the palace at Hampton Court, the library of Trinity College, Cambridge, the hospitals of Chelsea and Greenwich, the Church of Saint Stephen's, Walbrook; those of Saint Mary-la-bow and Saint Michael, Cornhill, that of Saint Bride, Fleet Street, and the campanile of Christ Church, Oxford. In 1680 he was chosen president of the royal works, and from 1685 to 1700 he represented various boroughs in Parliament. Over the north doorway of Saint Paul's is a memorial tablet, on which are the well-known words, *Sicut monumentum requiri, circumspectis (If thou seek his monument, look about thee)*.

WRENCH, *wrench*, a tool designed for gripping nuts, bolts, screws or pipes so that they may be turned. A simple wrench is that used by machinists, consisting of a flat metal bar with angular openings at end and sides. Another is an *alligator wrench*, made of a single piece of metal, at one end a handle, at the other a pair of jaws, with wedge-shaped opening, one side of which is toothed. The *monkey wrench* is more complicated. A bar of metal equipped with a wooden handle is fitted with a stationary jaw and a jaw which can be adjusted to various widths by means of a screw.

WRESTLING, *wrestling*, a competitive sport engaged in by two persons, each of whom tries to throw the other prone upon the ground. Wrestling brings into play every muscle of the body, and when engaged in under the proper restraining rules is one of the most beneficial of sports. The winner in a wrestling match is usually the man who is the more skilful and alert, strength and weight count, but a quick eye and decision of action are even more essential.

Wrestling, being the most natural of sports, is among the oldest. In all Greek athletic contests it had a prominent part. The Greek wrestlers oiled their bodies, supposedly to make them more supple. Grace was insisted upon, and the most stringent rules were enforced. Roman wrestling was

of a rougher sort, in which participants were not infrequently killed. In the Greco-Roman wrestling of modern France, the contestants are stripped to the waist and are not allowed to grasp each other anywhere below the belt or to trip each other. Most of the struggle takes place after both men are on the mat, and a fall is scored when one of the contestants forces both shoulders of his opponent to the ground.

The Irish method of wrestling is known as the *collar and elbow*. The wrestlers wear short jackets with stout collars and sleeves, to afford a good grip. Each man seizes the collar of the other with his right hand and the sleeves near the elbow with his left hand. If his grip loosens, he loses. A man is thrown when two shoulders and a hip or a shoulder and two hips touch the ground.

In England a good method of wrestling for boys and youths is known as the *black-hold catch*. Each contestant stands with his chin on the shoulder of the other, grasping the other about the body, the right arm of each under the left arm of the other. Tripping is allowed, but kicking or brutality is barred. The first step to certain success is to get the right shoulder beneath the armpit of the opponent. If a contestant loses his grip or if his shoulders touch the floor, he loses.

A freer method of wrestling, common in both England and America is the *catch-as-catch-can* method, in which, as the name implies, holds are taken at random. Tripping is permitted, but kicking and throttling are barred. Two shoulders on the floor constitutes a fall. When the match is professional, two falls in three or three in five are usually required for a decision. There are a number of recognized "holds" which give a wrestler great advantage over an opponent, such as the *grape-vine lock*, the *chancery*, the *half-Nelson* and the *hammer-lock*.

The Japanese have a system of wrestling known as *jujutsu*, which is a method of self-defense without the use of weapons. A master of *jujutsu* can, by a slight, swift movement, benumb an opponent's brain, dislocate his hip or shoulder or burst or twist a tendon. The police force of Japan are required to attain a certain proficiency in *jujutsu*, but the system in its entirety is taught to only a few men of the highest character and self-mastery. None is given the training without first taking oath not to reveal its secrets. See *JUJUTSU*.

WRIGHT, MRS. CARROLL DAVISON (1840-1909), an American economist, statistician and legislator, born at Dunbarton, N. H. In the Civil War he rose from private to rank of colonel. From 1878 to 1885 he was chief of the state bureau of labor statistics, and from 1885 to 1902 was United States Commissioner of Labor. During these years he wrote many books on labor problems—among them *Some Ethical Phases of the Labor Question* and *Outlines of Practical Sociology*. In 1902 he became president of the college department of Clark University.

WRIGHT, FRANK LLOYD (1869-), American architect, was born at Richland Center, Wis. He studied civil engineering at the University of Wisconsin, but architecture became his life work. Beginning practice in Chicago in 1903, his designs at once attracted attention for their individuality and departure from conventional forms. His work was characterized as the "New School of the Middle West." He was the architect of the Imperial Hotel in Tokyo, Japan, and many buildings of note in America. He was author of numerous books on architecture and essays on the relation of art to life.

WRIGHT, HAROLD BELL (1872-), a popular American novelist, born in Rome, N. Y., and educated in the preparatory department of Hiram College, Ohio. He was at various times a painter and decorator, a landscape painter and a minister in the Disciples of Christ Church, and his first novel, *The Printer of Ulster* (1903), was written while he was preaching in Missouri. It was followed by *The Shepherd of the Hills*, a great popular success. In 1908 he retired from the ministry to devote himself entirely to writing, producing, in rapid succession, *The Calling of Dan Matthews*, *The Uncrowned King*, *The Warning of Barbara Worth*, *Their Yesterday*, *The Eyes of the World*, *When a Man's a Man*, *The Re-Creation of Brian Kent*, *Heires of the Old House*, *The Muse with the Iron Door*, *A Son of His Father*, *God and the Grocer*, *Man, Long Ago Told, East, and Me Ganderella*.

WRIGHT, ORVILLE (1871-), and Wilbur (1874-1912), two brothers who won undying fame as inventors of practical flying machines. Orville was born in Dayton, O., and Wilbur in Millville, Ind. Both were educated in the public schools. They began to study aeronautics in 1896. At this time they had a bicycle shop in Dayton, Ohio.

In 1900 they began experiments in aviation with machines of their own invention and manufacture, and three years later they had produced a machine which would remain in the air over a minute. In 1905 they made the first long-distance flight, near Dayton; and in 1908 Wilbur made his first public flight in France. After the brothers had won gold medals and homage in Europe they were recognized at home, and their machine was accepted by the United States government for use in the army. The Wright machines are now rendered obsolete by new improvements. See *Flying Story* or.

WREIT, in law, a formal order issued by a court in the name of a state enjoining the person mentioned therein to perform some specified act. It is issued under seal, attested by the proper officer and addressed to the sheriff or some other officer legally authorized to enforce its execution.

The following are the writs in most common use:

A writ of summons commands an authorized officer to notify a person to appear in court to answer to a complaint.

A writ of replevin is an order permitting the recovery of goods which have been illegally seized.

A writ of mandamus is a command to a person or corporation to something pertaining to his, or its, office or duty.

A writ of quo warranto is a command to show by what right an act is performed or an office held.

A writ of error is issued to remove an action to a higher court, by reason of error in the proceedings of the inferior court.

A writ of certiorari is issued by a court of review, requiring the record of a case to be sent up from an inferior court for examination.

For writ of subpoena see *Witness*. See, also, *Habemus Corpus*, *Infraction*, *Capias*.

WRITING, signs or characters inscribed on a surface for the purpose of recording and communicating thought. The earliest form of writing, practiced by all primitive peoples, was that of picture writing, or the copying of objects direct from nature. After this came symbolic writing, such as was developed in its highest form in the cuneiform system of Western Asia and the hieroglyphics of Egypt, in which abbreviated pictures were used as arbitrary symbols, first of things and later of sounds and words. These systems marked the transition from ideographic to phonetic writing, in which signs represent either syllables or single sounds.

Of systems of writing in which signs represent syllables, the most notable is the Chinese. As the same sound may have several meanings, it is often necessary to add to a syllable some sign to indicate which meaning is intended. The Phoenicians, basing their system on the Egyptian, are said to have invented the first phonetic alphabet, in which signs represent single sounds. Tradition has it that the Phoenician system was introduced into Greece by Cadmus of Boeotia, about the seventeenth century, B.C. The Greek forms spread to Sicily and Italy, being modified as they spread.

Various systems of writing differ in the arrangement of their symbols. Chinese characters are read in columns from top to bottom. Mexican picture writing is read from bottom to top. Hebrew writing, a modification of one form of the ancient Egyptian, is read from right to left. Sanskrit, Greek, Latin and all modern European languages are read from left to right. In medieval manuscripts a variety of styles were adopted in different epochs and countries.

Whole manuscripts were written in large or small capitals. Uncial letters, which prevailed from the seventh to the tenth century, were rounded capitals, with few hair strokes. Gothic characters, fanciful deviations from the Roman types, became common from the thirteenth to the fifteenth century. In England, in the early Middle Ages a variety of styles called Saxon prevailed, a mixed style was formed of a combination of Roman, Lombardic and Saxon characters, the Norman style came in with William the Conqueror, and the English court hand, an adaptation of Saxon, prevailed from the sixteenth century to the reign of George II.

There have been various unsuccessful attempts to introduce systems of phonetic writing, in which each sound should be reproduced by one invariable sign. Systems of shorthand are generally phonetic. See ALPHABET, HIEROGLYPHICS, SHORTHAND.

WRITS OF ASSISTANCE. In American colonial days the British customs officials were provided with general search warrants to aid them in collecting import duties. These warrants were called *writs of assistance*. These writs differed from an ordinary search warrant in that they did not limit the officer's search to a specified time or place, or to specified goods, but authorized him to seize any suspected goods.

The first writ of this kind was issued in 1761 and aroused much opposition. James Otis, advocate-general of the colony of Massachusetts, resigned his office and became leading attorney in a case in opposition to the issuance of the writs. In his appeal to the court he uttered radical sentiments in opposition to the king and Parliament. The writ was declared legal, but it was rarely, if ever, used. See WARRANT.

WRYNECK, a European bird related to the woodpeckers, but, unlike the latter, unable to climb. It makes its nest in the natural cavities of trees, and lays from seven to



WRYNECK

twelve shiny, white eggs. It eats ants and other ground insects, which it captures with its bill or with its wormlike tongue. When disturbed, the bird thrusts its head out over its nest with an undulating movement, which has given it its name. Its habit of hissing on such occasions has earned for it the sobriquet *snake bird*.

WURTTEMBERG, *vurt'əm bərk'*, Germany, formerly a kingdom and one of the divisions of the German Empire prior to 1918, became a part of the German republic in 1919. Territorially it joins Bavaria and Baden. It has an area of 7,528 square miles, and a population of approximately two and a half million. In the Middle Ages, Wurttemberg was a county. In 1495 it was erected into a duchy and in 1806 became a kingdom. At the formation of the German Empire, in 1871, it became a part of that government. For surface, climate and products, see GERMANY.

WYANDOTTE, *wi'ən dot*. See Huson.

WYANDOTTE CAVE, *wi'ən dot*, a natural cavern in Crawford County, Ind., five miles northwest of Leavenworth. It is next to Mammoth Cave in size and has been ex-

plored for about twenty-three miles. It is noted for its large chambers, some of which are 200 feet high and 300 feet broad. The stalactite formations in this cave are of unusual magnitude and beauty. Those in the room known as the Pillared Palace are of unusual interest, while Monument Mountain is a group of stalagmite columns 175 feet high.

WYCLIFFE, or **WICLIFFE**, JOHN (about 1320-1384), an English reformer, born at Hipswell, in Yorkshire, England. Of his early life we know nothing. At sixteen he entered Oxford, became a fellow of Merton College, and later master of Balliol College and warden of Canterbury Hall. He zealously applied himself to the study of the Scriptures, which he subjected to the most critical analysis, and he early manifested a skepticism in regard to ecclesiastical doctrine and discipline.

Disputes were going on at this period between Edward III and the Papal court, concerning tribute exacted from King John, and the English Parliament had resolved to support the sovereign in his refusal to submit to the vassalage. Wycliffe took a prominent part in this affair, urging King Edward to refuse the tribute to the Holy See. Pope Gregory XI, on learning of Wycliffe's defiant attitude toward the Church in regard to this matter, wrote letters to the king, to the archbishop of Canterbury and the University of Oxford, to have him tried for heresy.

In subsequent sermons, Wycliffe attacked the higher clergy, accusing them of having assumed undue power and unbecoming arrogance. In February, 1378, he appeared before Archbishop Courtenay in Canterbury Cathedral, attended by John of Gaunt and other friends. The people who were present became so angered against Wycliffe that he and his friends had to flee for their lives. He retained the favor of the king, however, and soon afterward was awarded a professorship of divinity in the University of Oxford. In 1380 he opposed the doctrine of transubstantiation at Oxford, and two years later he was summoned to appear before a commission of bishops and doctors at London. He refused to attend, availing himself of a university prerogative. The trial was conducted without his presence. Ten out of twenty-four articles culled from his writings were condemned as heretical, and fourteen were declared to be erroneous. By

an order from the crown, he was deprived of his professorship and expelled from the university. He returned to Lutterworth, in Leicestershire, where Edward had given him a rectory. Here he labored zealously and unweariedly. Part of his time was spent in translating the Bible from the Vulgate. He continued to write unceasingly and boldly against the papal claims, upholding the Scripture itself as the highest explanation of the divine law and urging the importance of teaching it to every Christian and hence the duty of giving it to the world in the common tongue of the people. He sent out young men with the Bible, to preach the plain, straightforward word of God. These men were known as *poor priests*, and the people heard them gladly.

On Dec. 23, 1384, while hearing mass, he was seized with paralysis and died a few days later.

Wycliffe's followers were active in spreading his teachings, which for about a generation after his death acted as a powerful religious and political factor among the English people. Before Wycliffe's time there had been no systematic attempt to translate the whole Bible into English, and hence the vast importance of the version known as Wycliffe's Bible. Aside from its value from a theological point of view, Wycliffe's Bible was an important contribution to English prose.



WYOMING, a northwestern state of the American Union, is located on the great Rocky Mountain plateau, and is rectangular in form, its boundaries being formed by meridians of longitude and parallels of latitude. It lies between Montana on the north and Colorado on the south with South Dakota and Nebraska on the east and Idaho and Utah on the west. The name, meaning

large plains, was taken from that of the Wyoming valley in Pennsylvania. The word *Wyoming* is from the Delaware Indian name *Mauguauswassa*. Yellowstone National Park, which with its adjoining forest reserve has an area of 5,000 square miles, occupies the northwestern corner, extending over the boundary into Idaho and Montana. Grand Teton National Park, of 150 square miles, was established in 1929. See illustration, in the article PARKS, NATIONAL. Wyoming from east to west extends 356 miles; the width is 276 miles, area, 97,914 square miles.

The People. In 1930 the population of the state was 235,565. About one-sixth of the inhabitants are foreigners. Austrians, Canadians, English, Germans, Greeks, Italians, Scotch and Swedes are the most numerous. There are about 1,150 Chinese and Japanese, most of whom are employed as laborers in the mines. The Shoshone and Arapahoe Indian reservations within the state, west of the central section, near the Continental Divide, cover an area of 960 square miles, and the Indian population is about 1,900. Nevada is the only state having a smaller population.

Surface and Drainage. The surface of the state, for the most part, is composed of mountains and plateaus. The great plains of the Mississippi valley slope away from the foothills in the east. The elevation varies from 3,500 to 13,785 feet, the highest point being Mt. Gannet. The main axis of the Rocky Mountains, which forms the Continental Divide, extends from north to south. The northern group of these mountains finds here its greatest development and is noted for its wild character and its picturesque scenery. Yellowstone National Park, 3,342 square miles in area, occupies the northwestern corner of the state. In the west central part are the Wind River Mountains, in the north central part, the Big Horn Mountains, and in the extreme northeast, the Black Hills, extending into South Dakota; in the southeast is the Laramie range, in the south, the Medicine Bow Mountains, and in the west the Teton, Gros Ventre and Shoshone ranges. The southwestern portion of the state slopes towards the Pacific Ocean and forms a part of the Great Basin Valley. From the eastern and western slopes of the Rocky Mountains, several rivers take their rise, among them the North Platte, the Green, the Snake, the Laramie and the Shoshone.

Climate. Wyoming has the typical climate of the mountainous region of the northwest. The air is pure and dry, clear weather prevails and the high altitude is for many healthful. The average annual temperature is 45.5°; the mean annual rainfall, 12.98 inches.

Mineral Resources. In every mountain range of Wyoming, gold, silver, lead and copper ores are to be found, but as yet the resources have not been largely developed. Coal mining is most important, the annual output being about 8,000,000 tons, and there are over 20,000 square miles of coal lands, from which a steadily-increasing tonnage is being mined. Valuable iron deposits are found in various localities in the state. Petroleum occurs in Fremont and Natrona counties, and its production is next to that of coal in importance, in 1922 this amounted to 26,200,000 barrels. Extensive phosphate beds are found in Uinta County. The state also possesses extensive deposits of soda and an abundance of valuable building stone. Gold, silver and copper are mined in paying quantities.

Agriculture. Below the timber line, the mountains are covered with forests of coniferous trees. Between the mountain ranges are broad plateaus, with arable soils, which by means of proper irrigation yield prolific crops. On account of the slight rainfall it has been supposed that only a small part of the state was capable of cultivation. However, modern methods of moisture conservation have brought vast areas under cultivation. Irrigation ditches also have been carried long distances from the source of water supply. The result has been an immense increase in the tillable area. The raising of livestock is the most important agricultural industry. The nutritive grasses which so abundantly cover the great ranges of the pasture support many thousands of cattle and sheep. Oats, potatoes, wheat and hay are the principal crops.

Irrigation is being largely extended. The Shoshone project, the greatest in the state, includes a remarkable dam, 328 feet high, across a narrow canyon. The dam is only 85 feet long at the bottom and 200 feet at the top. A smaller dam diverts the waters of the Shoshone River, through a tunnel $\frac{3}{4}$ miles long, into a canal which for 40 miles passes only the upper edge of a broad and fertile valley containing 150,000 acres. Near

Douglas, in Converse County, and in Natrona, Johnson and Sheridan counties there are large irrigated areas. Manufactures As Wyoming is an agricultural and mineral state and still in the first steps of material development, it has no distinctive manufacturing interests. The most important manufacturing industry is car construction and railway repair, and next in importance is the manufacture of lumber and timber products.

Transportation The principal railroads are the Union Pacific, the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy and the Cheyenne & North Western. The total operative mileage is over 2,000.

Government The legislature has a senate of 27 members, elected for four years, and a lower house of 62 members, elected for two years. The sessions are biennial, and are limited to forty days. The executive department consists of a governor, a secretary of state, an auditor, a treasurer, and a superintendent of public instruction, each elected for four years. The courts consist of a supreme court, consisting of a chief justice and two associates, and such inferior courts as the legislature may establish.

Education The University of Wyoming, chartered in 1886, is situated at Laramie, and is the leading educational institution. The expenses of the public school system are provided for in part by the rental of government lands which are set aside for school purposes. The total extent of lands which may be so used is 3,000,000 acres.

The state school system is in charge of a State Board of Education, with a commissioner, elected by the board, as the executive officer. There is a state superintendent of public instruction, who is a member of this board, but his relation is chiefly advisory.

Institutions There is a soldiers' home at Buffalo, a hospital for the insane at Evanston, a school for defectives at Lander, an industrial institute at Worland and a state hospital at Rock Springs. The penitentiary is at Rawlins. At Thermopolis there is the Big Horn Hot Springs Reserve.

Cities The chief cities are Cheyenne, the capital, Casper, Laramie, Sheridan and Rock Springs.

History Wyoming was a part of the territory included in the Louisiana Purchase of 1803, with the exception of the southwest corner, which was a part of the territory ac-

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WYOMING

WYOMING



Main Hall, Erected 1887
University of Wyoming



Narrow-leaved
Indian
Paintbrush.
State
Flower



Canyon of the Yellowstone

Items of Interest on Wyoming
Wyoming is governed under a constitution adopted in 1889.

Amendments if agreed to by two-thirds of the members of each branch of the legislature are submitted to the electors of the state at the next general election.

About one-eighth of the land area is devoted to farms, but the improved land is only two per cent of the total area. Wyoming has over 30,000,000 acres of unreserved land.

There are two soda lakes in the state. In the summer the soda hardens and is cut into blocks three or four feet thick.

Wyoming's rivers are much frequented by anglers in search of rainbow trout. Specimens weighing from eight to ten pounds are found in the Big Laramie River.

The Yellowstone region is described in Washington Irving's *Captain Bonneville*, the hero being one of the early traders.

In 1935 hanging in capital crimes was abolished in favor of lethal gas. Social security laws of advanced type have been passed.

Questions on Wyoming

What is the peculiar feature of the boundaries of Wyoming? Do the boundaries of any other state have a similar feature?

What does the name Wyoming mean? Is the name appropriate to the state?

What great river systems have tributaries in Wyoming?

What region within the state has a world-wide reputation because of its scenery?

What part of the state has the largest number of inhabitants? Why?

Locate the Indian reservations on the map. How many are there?

Why is Wyoming one of the leading wool-producing states?

What are the most important mineral productions?

Why is the mining industry not more fully developed?

Why are there not more railroads?

quired from Mexico in 1848. The first white man supposed to have visited the region was Sieur de la Verendrye, in 1734. He was seeking sites for fur-trading posts. White hunters visited the Yellowstone region in 1807, and from that time hunters began to traverse the territory.

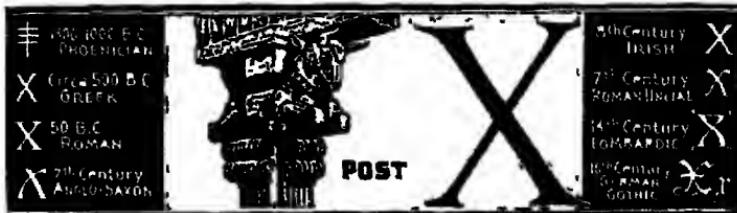
The first permanent settlement was made at Fort Laramie in 1834. Most of the immigration to California and Oregon passed through the territory, but not until the completion of the Union Pacific Railroad in 1869 were settlers attracted to the country. The Indians were hostile, and long before the construction of the railroad the government had built a chain of forts for the protection of immigrants. The discovery of gold in 1867 increased the number of settlers, and in 1869 Wyoming became an organized territory. Yellowstone National Park (which see) was created in 1872. Wyoming was admitted into the Union as the forty-fourth state on July 10, 1890. From the organization of its first government the state has given women equal suffrage with men. From this practice it received its popular name THE EQUALITY STATE.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information.

Big Horn River	Sheridan
Black Hills	Snake River
Cheyenne	Yellowstone Na-
Laramie	tional Park
Rocky Mountains	Yellowstone River

WYOMING, UNIVERSITY OF, a coeducational state institution, founded at Laramie in 1886. It comprises colleges of liberal arts, agriculture, engineering and education, departments of music, home economics, commerce and university extension, a teachers' training high school and a summer school. The Wyoming state normal school is maintained as a part of the college of education, and the agricultural experiment station is operated in connection with the agricultural departments. There is a faculty of about 200, and a student enrollment of over 3,000. The library contains 97,000 volumes.

WYOMING VALLEY MASSACRE, a fearful massacre in Wyoming Valley, Pa., on July 3 and 4, 1778, perpetrated by an English and Indian force against the American settlers of the valley. A vast majority of the inhabitants, including women and children, were slain in the course of two days' slaughter, and the rest fled eastward to the nearest settlements. The valley was not settled again for several years.



X, the twenty-fourth letter of the alphabet and the representative of what might as well be denoted by *ls* or *gs*. The letter *s* was originally Phoenician, and until a late date the last in the Roman alphabet, but *y* and *x* were finally added from the Greek. As an initial letter, it is pronounced like *c*.

In algebra, *x* is the usual symbol for the unknown quantity. In Roman numerals *X* signifies ten, perhaps from the fact that it represents a *V* standing upon a second *V* inverted.

XANTHIPPE, *sán'thip'pe*, the scolding wife of the philosopher Socrates, whose forbearance with her quarrelsome temper was a salient trait in his character. The name has become proverbial as that of a scolding shrew.

XAVIER, *zav'íer*, FRANCISCO DE (1506-1552), better known as SAINT FRANCIS XAVIER, was a Jesuit missionary in Asiatic countries, earning the title "Apostle of the Indies." He was a native of Northern Spain, the son of a nobleman whose family seat was Xavier. He was sent to Paris to be educated, and with Loyola he founded the Society of Jesus. In the early part of 1540, he was chosen for the mission to India. From Goa, where he arrived in May, 1542, he extended his labors southward to Ceylon, Malacca and Celebes. He spent two years in Japan and returned to Goa to organize a mission to China, but before he could overcome the difficulties in his way, he died. Xavier was canonized in 1622.

XERIA, *zé'reah*, Ohio, the county seat of Greene County, fifty-five miles southwest of Columbus, on the Little Miami River and on the Baltimore & Ohio and the Pennsylvania railroads. There is no airport. The city is in a productive farming region. There are extensive cordage works, shoe factories, machine shops and rubber and candy fac-

tories. The Xenia Theological Seminary and the Ohio soldiers' and sailors' orphans' home are located here. A courthouse, a Carnegie Library and a Federal building are prominent features. Wilberforce University for colored students is located three miles north. There are interesting Indian mounds and reliés in the vicinity, as in other nearby sections of the state. Xenia was settled in 1803, and was incorporated five years later. Population, 1929, 8,110; in 1930, 10,507, a gain of 15 per cent.

XENOPHON, *zé'nófón* (about 434-about 355 B. C.), an Athenian historian and general, a pupil of Socrates. When about forty years of age, he joined the expedition of Cyrus against Artaxerxes. Cyrus was killed in the Battle of Cunaxa, and the Greek generals were put to death. The ten thousand mercenaries then chose Xenophon as their leader, and he brought them out of the strange country to the Black Sea. On his return to Greece he fought with Sparta against Athens.

Xenophon wrote numerous works, and all of these, it would seem, have come down to us. The chief are a famous work called the *Anabasis*, which describes the expedition of Cyrus already referred to, especially the retreat of the Ten Thousand, the *Memorabilia*, a record of the life and teachings of Socrates, the *Hellenics*, which gives a somewhat dull account of forty-eight years of Greek history and is a continuation of the history of Thucydides, and several minor works. Xenophon's writings are clear and accurate, and are among the best sources of information regarding some of the most important events that have ever happened, but his style is often commonplace and monotonous.

XERXES, *zér'kéz*, the name borne by three kings of Persia, the most celebrated of whom was Xerxes I (see next page).

Xerxes I, the son of Darius I, succeeded to the throne of Persia on his father's death, in 485 b c. After suppressing a revolt in Egypt, he began to make plans for the invasion of Greece, the preparations for which had been begun by his father. These preparations were on the most enormous scale. Provisions were stored up on the intended route for three years, a transport fleet was collected, the engineering skill of the day was exerted to remove land obstacles and the resources of the vast Persian Empire were taxed to the utmost to produce an armament sufficient to crush Greece. According to ancient computation, the invading army numbered over two million, and although this, possibly, is an exaggeration, it must have been numerically the greatest army on record.

At the head of his enormous host, Xerxes advanced unopposed till he came to Thermopylae, but here his fleet was seriously damaged by a storm, while the narrow pass was effectually held by Leonidas, at the head of a determined, though small, band of Spartans. At last the passage was effected through treachery, and Xerxes marched on through Phocis and Boeotia to Athens, which he entered without opposition. In the meantime the Persian fleet had met with several mishaps. In two engagements with the Greek ships at Artemisium, it had suffered considerable damage, and a storm which occurred between the two conflicts was the cause of still greater loss. Finally, at Salamis (480 b c) a naval battle was fought, one of the most decisive in the history of the world, in which the Persians were defeated with terrible loss. Xerxes, who from a lofty eminence had watched the destruction of his fleet, fled panic-stricken to Sardis, leaving in command of his army, Mardonius, who was defeated the following year at Plataea. He spent the rest of his life in obscurity and was murdered by Artabanus, the commander of his bodyguard, who was plotting to make himself king of Persia. He was succeeded by his son Artaxerxes I.

Xerxes II was the son of Artaxerxes I. He was born about 450 b c and lived twenty-five years. On the assassination of his parents he ascended the throne but was murdered about a month later.

The third Persian ruler of this name, who was also called OARSES, ruled about 387 b c.

X-RAY. See ROENTGEN RAYS.

XYLOPHONE, *z'lo fone*, a musical instrument. Small bars of wood, selected for



XYLOPHONE

their sounding quality, or pieces of metal of graduated length are fastened upon a horizontal frame in such a manner as to form the chromatic scale. The performer plays with two small mallets, one in each hand.

X Y Z CORRESPONDENCE, the name given to the dispatches sent in 1797-1798 to the United States government by its commissioners, Charles Pinckney, John Marshall and Elbridge Gerry, in Paris. These men were sent to France to settle certain difficulties with that government. On their arrival they were not received officially, but were compelled to communicate with the government through three agents, who informed them that the first step toward negotiation would be the payment of a large sum of money to the Directory, which was then in control of French affairs. The American commissioners, with the exception of Gerry, promptly withdrew and transmitted the correspondence to President Adams, who, in turn, laid it before Congress, substituting for the names of the French commissioners the letters X Y Z. The correspondence aroused the bitterest feeling in the United States, and a naval war with France was actually begun, but the French government receded from its position and thus averted a struggle. See ADAMS, JOHN.



Y, the twenty-fifth letter of the English alphabet, resembling in its form the Greek upsilon. It is, like us, both a consonant and a vowel, but it differs from us in that it is often used by itself as a vowel, as in by, day, pony. In this use it is superfluous, as it might be replaced by :

In algebra, y stands for the second of the unknown quantities.

YABLONOV, yet bla sov', MOUNTAINS, a Siberian range extending from Northern Mongolia in a northeasterly direction about 1,000 miles and merging with the Stanovoi. The highest peaks, at the southern end of the range, attain an altitude of more than 8,000 feet. Many other peaks are 6,000 feet high.

YACHT, yet, AND YACHTING, yet' my A sailing boat, used for pleasure, for traveling or for racing, is known as a yacht. There are three principal rigs for sailing yachts—cutter, schooner and yawl. A cutter has one mast and a running bowsprit and usually carries four sails, namely, mizzenail, gaff-top sail, foretop and jib. A square sail is also frequently set by the larger vessels of this class. A schooner has two masts, mizzenail and foremast, or not infrequently, instead of these, a running bowsprit, like that of a cutter. A yawl is rigged exactly like a cutter, with the addition of a small mizzenail. It is a very convenient running rig and is becoming common for yachts of over 50 tons. Steam yachts are common, and in many localities they are put to practical uses by their owners. The speed attained by some is remarkable.

The history of yachting is the history of yacht racing, much as competition improved yachts, just as horse racing improved the breed of horses. Very arbitrary rules obtain with reference to the building of yachts for racing purposes. The first international contest between the United States

and England took place in 1851, when the Americans defeated fifteen English yachts in their own waters, and won the \$500 cup offered by the Royal Yacht Squadron. The trophy has remained ever since in the possession of the New York Yacht Club, though several English yachts have tried to win it back. In 1870 the Cambria was defeated. In 1885 the Gloriana was defeated by the Puritan, and a year later the Galatea by the Mayflower. The Volunteer, the Defender, the Resolute, the Resolute and the Enterprise are American yachts that have recently maintained supremacy over the English challengers.

The principal English competitors since 1851 have been vessels constructed for the purpose by Sir Thomas Lipton and named respectively the Shamrock I, II, III, IV and V. The races are usually sailed off Sandy Hook, a few miles south of New York harbor. In 1920, the Resolute defeated Shamrock IV, and in 1930, Shamrock V, Lipton's last challenger, was defeated by the Enterprise. See **SAILBOAT AND SAILXO**.

YAK, an animal of the ox tribe, found only in Tibet, Asia. It is found wild and is the ordinary domestic animal of the inhabitants of that region, supplying milk, food and raiment, as well as serving as a beast of burden. The size is that of a small ox. The horns are long, nearly cylindrical, smooth and pointed at the ends, and they have a peculiar and characteristic curve. Some of the domestic yaks are hornless. Their most remarkable external characteristic is the excessive growth and peculiar distribution of

The upper parts of the body and sides are clothed with thick, soft, woolly hair, more fully developed along the middle of the back, especially on the shoulders, where it forms a great bunch. From the upper parts of the

fimbs and the whole of the lower surface of the body hangs a thick growth of long, straight hair, in old animals sweeping the ground and almost concealing the somewhat short legs. The tail is profusely covered with a thick mass of such hairs. The wild animals are nearly uniformly black, the domestic yaks are often quite white. The silky and tough hair and the skins are often used in the manufacture of caps, coats, blankets and ropes.

YAKIMA, *yak'he suh*, an Indian tribe, formerly living on both sides of the Columbia River and on the northerly branches of the Yakima in Washington. They were mentioned by Lewis and Clark in 1806. In 1855 the United States made a treaty with the Yakima and thirteen other tribes whereby they were required to cede valuable lands to the government and confine themselves to the Yakima reservation. The Indians resorted to war, and it was not till 1859 that the provisions of the treaty could be carried out.

YAKIMA, WASH., the county seat of Yakima County, is on the Yakima River and the Northern Pacific and Union Pacific railroads, and an interurban road, and is about 200 miles southwest of Spokane. There is a county airport. It is a distributing center for a large surrounding territory. It has extensive fruit canneries, flour mills, sawmills, other wood-working factories and warehouses. There is a fine Federal building, a Carnegie Library, a state armory, and a hospital. The state fair is held here. The commission form of government is in operation. The name was changed from North Yakima in 1917. Population, 1930, 22,101.

YALE UNIVERSITY, a foremost American institution of higher learning, and the third in point of age, as its establishment followed the founding of Harvard and of William and Mary. It is located in New Haven, Conn., and is the outgrowth of a small college founded in 1701 at Saybrook by ten ministers of the colony of Connecticut. In 1716 it was removed to New Haven, where it was permanently located, and two years later it was given the name of Yale College in honor of Elihu Yale, who bestowed upon it a sum of money.

The beginning of the present organization dates from the administration of Timothy Dwight, who was president from 1795 to 1817. During this time, permanent professorships were established, the college grounds were

extended and professional schools were planned, but only the medical school was established. President Dwight's successors continued his plan and the other professional schools were organized as rapidly as funds could be provided for their maintenance. In 1887 the state legislature authorized the adoption of the name Yale University.

As now organized, Yale has nine departments of instruction, each under the supervision of a special faculty. They are the College, which confers the degree of Bachelor of Arts; the Sheffield Scientific School, giving both graduate and undergraduate courses; the Graduate School, conferring the degrees of Ph. D and M. A.; the Medical School, the School of Religion (undenominational), the School of Law, the School of Fine Arts, the School of Music; and the School of Forestry, a graduate department giving the degree of Master of Forestry. At Keene, N. H., there is a school forest of 1,000 acres.

The university is not coeducational, and it lost heavily because of enlistments after America entered the World War. Ordinarily there are about 5,000 students and over 700 instructors. There are about 1,700,000 volumes in the libraries. Among the notable structures are the observatory buildings, the gymnasium, and the Yale "Bowl," one of the largest football amphitheaters in the world. Many eminent men are among the alumni of Yale, including Nathan Hale, Jonathan Edwards, Lyman Beecher, James Kent, John C Calhoun, Eli Whitney, Samuel F. B. Morse, Noah Webster and William H. Taft.

Elihu Yale (1643-1721), an English merchant and philanthropist, was born near Boston. His father was one of the original settlers of New Haven, Conn. The son was educated in England and began his career as a merchant, engaging in trade in India. From 1687 to 1692 he was governor of the East India Company's fort at Madras. He then returned to England. Mr. Yale became interested in the schools founded at Saybrook and afterwards located at New Haven, Connecticut. During his life he made several bequests to this institution, and in 1718 he announced a large gift. The trustees then honored him by naming the school Yale College.

YALU, yah loo', RIVER, a river of Eastern Asia, which rises on the eastern borders of China and flows southwestward and south-

ward, forming during its entire course a part of the boundary between China and Chosen (Korea). Its length is about 300 miles, and it is navigable for about thirty miles. At the mouth of this river a famous naval battle was fought in 1894, during which the Japanese destroyed the Chinese fleet. The forcing of the passage of this river at its mouth by the Japanese in 1904 was the first movement in the land operations of the Russo-Japanese War. Since the Japanese annexed Chosen they have called the river Otoroku (*c rōku*). See RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

YAM, a plant having edible roots much like the sweet potato. It is found in the temperate and subtropical parts of America, in China



YAM

and in the islands of the Southern Pacific. In Australia and China a species known as winged yam produces edible tubers from one and a half to three feet long which sometimes weigh thirty pounds. The skin is dark brown and the reddish flesh is sweet and juicy and very palatable when baked. A large yam is also found in India, though there the small white yam is more in demand for food.

The yam has become an important vegetable in the United States. While it contains less starch than the Irish potato, it contains more nitrogen and a high percentage of sugar.

YANKEY, *yē'kē*, WILLIAM LOWMEYER (1814-1863), an American publicist and orator, born in Georgia. He studied law, was admitted to the bar in 1834 and practiced law, at the same time editing a Unionist paper. He removed to Alabama in 1838, became prominent as a lawyer and Whig orator and entered the legislature. Elected to Congress in 1844, he espoused the Southern cause, and after his retirement two years later he became the recognized leader and orator of the radical element in the South.

In the convention which met at Montgomery, Ala., January 7, 1861, he reported the ordinance of secession. He went as a Confederate commissioner to seek European recognition of the independence of the Confederacy, but was unsuccessful. After his return he served in the Confederate Senate until his death. Yancey, though he held office for only two brief periods, was one of the most influential orators of the Civil-War period and did perhaps more than any other man to strengthen among Southerners the desire for secession.

YANG-THE, *yahng'ths*, one of the largest and most important rivers of Asia. It rises in the south-central part of the continent, in the plateau of Tibet, flows north-eastward, then southeastward, then north-eastward, after an irregular course, it enters the Yellow Sea through an estuary about thirty miles wide. Its length is about 3,000 miles. The upper part of the course is between mountains, and the channel is narrow and the stream rapid, often interrupted by rapids and falls. The tide ascends the river for 450 miles, and it is navigable for 600 miles into China.

The chief tributaries are the Han, from the north, and the Wu, the Heng and the Kan, from the south. Some of these are navigable for considerable distances. The Yang-tze brings down large quantities of sediment, and it is estimated that the amount deposited each year is equal to about five-sixths of the amount deposited by the Mississippi. It is connected with the Hwang by the Grand Canal.

YANKEE, in America, the popular name for a New Englander; in Great Britain it is often applied indiscriminately to the whole population of the United States, and during the World War it was the common designation of the American soldier, regardless of his state. In its origin it was a corruption of the

word *English* as pronounced by the Indians. It seems to have been first applied about 1775 by the British soldiers as a term of reproach to the New Englanders, who themselves afterward adopted it. Since the Civil War the Southern people have applied it to all people of the North.

YANKEE DOODLE, a national song of the United States, sung to a very old tune, which dates from the tenth century. The words, which are mere doggrel, were probably written at the time of the French and Indian War by an English army surgeon, Dr. Richard Schuckburgh, in derision of the ill-trained continental troops. Notwithstanding its mockery, it was taken up by the "Yankees" soldiers and became widely popular.

YANKTON, S. D., the county seat of Yankton County, sixty-five miles southwest of Sioux Falls, on the Missouri River and on the Great Northern, the Chicago, & North Western and the Chicago, Milwaukee & Saint Paul railroads. The city is the center of a large agricultural and stock-raising district. Its manufactures include flour, cement, bricks and eggs. There are two nurseries. The Yankton College (Congregational) is located here; also the state hospital for the insane. Other notable institutions and buildings are the Sacred Heart Hospital, a Federal building and a Carnegie Library.

Yankton is the oldest settled community in the Dakotas. It was settled in 1858 and was the capital of Dakota Territory until 1883. It adopted the commission form of government in 1910. Population, 1920, 5,024; in 1930, 6,072, a gain of 20 per cent.

YAQUI, *yah'ke*, INDIANS, a native tribe of the Mexican state of Sonora, numbering about 20,000 and representing a well-developed type of civilization. They are said to be the only Indian tribe that has never been fully subdued by the white man. They made a treaty with the Spaniards in 1610, but their history from 1740 down to the present has been a series of revolts. In 1906 the Mexican government took the extreme measure of attempting to subdue them by deportation to Yucatan. The industries of the Yaquis are agriculture, cattle raising and the manufacture of cotton and woolen stuffs. They also make hats of palm leaves and baskets of reed. Many are employed as laborers in fields and mines.

YARKAND, *yahr kahnd'*, a city situated in the chief oasis of Sin Kiang (Western

China), southeast of Kashgar. It is at an elevation of over 3,800 feet, is enclosed by a wall and surrounded by a moat. The buildings are constructed of stone and clay, and most of them are of one story. The city has numerous bazaars, mosques and caravansaries. It is also the seat of some Mohammedan colleges. It is surrounded by an agricultural and stock-raising region and carries on a trade in silk, dyes, leather, wool, tea and sugar. Yarkand is not so important a commercial center as formerly, owing to the fact that railway lines elsewhere have diverted much of its caravan trade. Population, about 70,000.

YARMOUTH, *yuh'muth*, NOVA SCOTIA, the county seat of Yarmouth County and an important seaport, situated on a small bay of the Atlantic Ocean, 205 miles southwest of Halifax. It is served by the Canadian National and Dominion Atlantic railways. It has regular steamer connection with Boston, Halifax and Saint John. Its commercial prestige is due largely to its fisheries and fish preserving industries and its lumber trade. Strawberry growing and fur farming are carried on. Excellent roads make this a popular center for tourists, and also for sportsmen. Fish and game are plentiful.

Yarmouth was founded in 1861, and was incorporated as a town in 1890. It is a city of beautiful homes, fine streets and attractive surroundings. Population, 1921, 7,078; in 1931, 7,055.

YARMOUTH, or **GREAT YARMOUTH**, ENGLAND, a seaport and watering place situated on the east coast, nineteen miles east of Norwich. The town occupies a narrow peninsula between the Yare River and the North Sea, and is connected by bridges with Suffolk and other places on the right bank of the Yare. The river is lined with extensive piers. Yarmouth is an important commercial port, and is the chief center of the herring fisheries of England. Other industries include shipbuilding and the manufacture of ropes, nets and sails. Dickens has described the salty, fishy air of Yarmouth and the charm of its seafaring folk in his novel, *David Copperfield*. Population, 1931, 56,769.

YARN, thread made by twisting the fiber of wool, cotton, flax, silk, hemp or other materials. The yarns are woven into fabrics, or used in knitting, embroidery and sewing. For the process of making yarn, see SPINNING.

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